# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 17, 1891.

## The Week.

THE case against the *Itata* has been formally abandoned, as a matter of course, owing not only to the change in the situation in Chili, but to the better information about it now possessed by our Government. As a matter of fact, the charge on which Don Ricardo Trumbull was indicted, that of "fitting out or arming a vessel to cruise or commit hostilities against the subjects, citizens, or property of any foreign prince or State, or any colony, district, or people with whom the United States were at peace," is just as good now as it ever was. Balmaceda, at the time of the offence, either was or was not "a prince or State, colony, district, or people with whom the United States were at peace." If he was, his defeat and expulsion from Chili since that time does not affect the question of Trumbull's guilt, and the prosecution ought to go on. But the trouble with which the Administration would have had to contend on the trial, and which they now see would have knocked the prosecution into smithereens, is that Balmaceda was not, when the *Itata* was seized, either a prince, or State, colony, district, or people. He was simply a Chilian criminal in revolt against his own Government, aggravated by robbery and murder. He had no legal standing of any description in his own country. It was the duty of every Chilian, under the Constitution, to do what he could to arrest and bring him to justice. These patent facts "Pat" Egan, our Minister, ought to have reported promptly to the State Department, and so have prevented the seizure and pursuit of the *Itata*, which was the property, and was engaged in the service of, a friendly State, then occupied, under very trying circumstances, in defending its Constitution and laws against a powerful and treacherous brigand. The position of the Administration now in abandoning the prosecution is a very humiliating one; but if it teaches our rulers the need of more care and deliberation in the management of foreign relations and in the use of our new cruisers, the lesson will not be dearly bought.

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The issue of $27,000,000 of irredeemable paper through Balmaceda during his short reign is one of the most serious facts in the present situation in Chili. Both banks and individuals within his jurisdiction had to accept it, on pain of being shot or locked up, so that its repudiation now would have put a very great obstacle in the way of a restoration of confidence, and it is fortunate that the new Government has determined to recognize and redeem it. According to the *Herald's* news, Egan continues to show a front of steel to the British, who are trying in vain to diminish his beneficent influence. It appears it was in order to get ahead of him that the British man-of-war undertook to carry that silver to London for Balmaceda. Doubtless other underhand attempts from the same quarter will be brought to light to depreciate him every few days. In spite of this British malignity, however, it still appears plain that Egan ought to come home promptly. It is of the utmost importance to the commercial and moral interests of the United States that, during this period of reorganization in Chili, they should be represented by some one who has no apologies to make for anything in his past career, who is really an educated American of high character and standing, and who will be recognized as such by Chilian public men. Egan can never in their eyes have any real weight. He is only an American in name; his reputation is damaged, and he is an ignorant and illiterate man in a community in which the political class are still men of culture and refinement. It is only as "a Blaine Irishman" that he is any way eminent, and this type of humanity commands but little respect outside the *Tribune* office and Bar Harbor.

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The Democrats of Pennsylvania are taking as their motto for the campaign in and about Philadelphia "Thou Shalt Not Steal," and are making a perceptible impression with it. There are many Republican efforts to be humorous over the spectacle of the Democratic politicians going to the Ten Commandments for their campaign ammunition, but they are not especially successful. Surely no community was ever in greater need of being reminded of the existence of this fundamental law of public and private morality than Philadelphia is to-day. Not only has the city been robbed of several millions of dollars, but its leading newspapers have been caught sharing some of the plunder with the chief thief, and the power of its leading citizens is used to prevent all thorough examination into the matter. The position of the great body of the intelligence and virtue of the community appears to be that stealing which is done by good and pious men ought not to be either exposed or punished, if it is possible to keep it hidden, since the exposure might seriously disturb both the moral and commercial stability of the community. The Democrats, therefore, in preaching the abstract immorality of theft, are doing most important missionary work.

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The reports that Secretary Foster has been holding back payments on all the regular appropriations, in order to scrape together enough money to redeem the 4½ per cent. bonds, are fully borne out by the statement of the receipts and expenditures of the Treasury for August. The receipts show a marked falling off, being $28,884,851, compared with the $36,607,449 of August, 1890, and the even higher figures for July and June of last year. Yet, by screwing down the expenses to $20,738,020, Mr. Foster gets a comfortable balance to apply to redemption of bonds. But how was this balance obtained? The figures tell their own story. Nearly $6,000,000 are knocked off the customary payments under the head of "Civil and Miscellaneous," at least a million more off the appropriations for "War," a good sum taken out of the money voted the Indians, and—tell it not to the makers of Republican platforms—from eight to ten millions from that sacred fund which pays for "Pensions." Think of a beggarly $5,094,323 paid out for pensions in August! What becomes of "Republican generosity" to the old soldier, in view of such a whittling down from the good, hearty present of $13,000,000 in July, $18,000,000 in August of last year, and $21,000,000 last November? Secretary Foster will have to do better than this, or the Republican campaigners will find their arguments running low. His monthly statements have degenerated into a mystification, but the record of the actual operations of the Treasury shows how matters really stand. It proves that the receipts have fallen behind expenses since the McKinley Bill went into force. The balance on the wrong side was about $3,000,000 up to the end of July, and would have been six or seven millions higher in August alone if the average monthly payments had not been held up. When we get the September showing, with the outlay for bond redemption added in, we shall doubtless have a new proof that time was all that was needed to show the supernatural wisdom of the McKinley Bill.

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One of the most rascally clauses in the McKinley tariff is that relating to pocket cutlery, the duty upon which was increased to 74, 83, and 116 per cent., according to quality. The duty, before McKinley took it in hand, was 50 per cent. ad valorem, which was itself an unconscionable outrage upon the buyers of jack-knives. McKinley added a specific duty to the ad-valorem, which is equivalent to the foregoing percentages. Since the new tariff went into effect, the manufacturers have held meetings in this city about once a month to put up prices, and have advanced them about 40 per cent. on some kinds of goods. Although they have not organized a Trust, their concerted action has the same effect on the public. And now "An Interested Observer" writes a very misleading article in *Bradstreet's* to justify the advance in the price of jack-knives. Before the passage of the bill, he tells us, the manufacturers were selling thousands of dozens of these knives at a loss of 25 per cent. Poor things! Why did they go on year after year increasing their production and their losses? That they did increase their production is evident.

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| According to their own statement their production of this kind of knives in 1882 was of the value of | $1,320,000 |
| The imports (including duty) were | 1,857,297 |
| Consumption for 1882 | $3,177,297 |

The increase in consumption must have been as much as 2½ per cent. per annum, or an increase of 15 per cent. in six years (1882 to 1887 inclusive). Now, the importation of these goods did not increase, but slightly declined during this interval. Therefore the natural increase in consumption must have been supplied by the domestic manufacturers, and this increase could not have been less than $500,000 per annum in value, or 40 per cent. We are expected to believe that those distressed manufacturers went on increasing their product at a loss of 25 per cent. to themselves at every turn-over. A still more remarkable fact is that these sufferers, before the McKinley Bill passed, sold at $2 per dozen a knife the foreign equivalent of which cost $2.20 to land in New York, duty paid, and could not be sold, when all charges were paid, at less than $2.40 per dozen. And yet they were given a large increase of duty by McKinley which they are using, as the writer in *Bradstreet's* blandly remarks, to "educate the consumer to pay a little more for his goods." This is a euphemism for cheating him under the forms of law.

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While recalling last year's tin-plate prophecies for the sake of putting them on record, some further remarks of Senator Allison should not be overlooked. "If there is any faith to be placed in the iron and steel industry of our country," he said, "if there be anything in the promises, the prospects, the projects of these men, then it will turn out that when the 1st of July, 1892, shall come, we shall be producing in our own country tin plate to a very large extent." For "iron and steel industry of our country" read Cronmeyer and a few other rash enthusiasts like him, and the representatives of the Amalgamated Association who were deluded in the way that President Weihe has lately made public. It was "these men," with their "promises and projects," that the gullible members of the Senate Committee on Finance took as their guides in framing the tin-plate duties. At the present day it is clear that "if there is any faith to be placed in the iron and steel industry of our country," as represented by its leading firms in different parts of the country, Senator Allison's prediction will be as wide of the mark as was his more unguarded prophecy which is already falsified. But the interesting question arises if he will, in that case, be prepared to fulfil the threat which he made immediately after his prediction. "If the great iron and steel industry in the United States," he went on, "will not, now that they are to be protected in the production of tin, engage in that production, and compel the people of the United States to pay large and undiminished prices to monopolies in other countries, *then this tin duty will be swept from your statute books.*" This dire fulmination will do to go alongside Senator Sherman's against the Trusts, if they took advantage of the legislation granted them and put up prices. It may be found in the *Congressional Record* for September 30, 1890, at page 10722.

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A harrowing uncertainty seems to be connected with every triumph of "reciprocity" or "American diplomacy." No one appears able to tell exactly to whose benefit it is to inure. Thus we have been led along from one explanation to another in the matter of the lifting of the German prohibition of our pork, until it is impossible to know what really is the fact. We were told at first that the German consumer was to reap all the advantage, and this seemed reasonable until we were assured with equal positiveness that not he, but the American farmer, was to be blessed. This was good news; but before we could settle down to enjoy it, along came Minister Phelps to tell us that the only real benefit was to be Mr. Blaine's. No sooner were we beginning to credit this, than up rose Private Secretary Halford to inform us that it was all a mistake, and that the President himself was the chief beneficiary. As a relief from the painful dilemma presented by this conflicting testimony, a *tertium quid* then appeared in the person of Secretary Rusk, who began to get a suspicious number of congratulatory telegrams. He, however, with the modesty and generosity of conscious greatness, declined to wear all the laurels, and wrote a letter to Democratic Congressman Hatch, to aid that gentleman's Speakership canvass by declaring that a good part of the famous victory was due to him. Now we submit that this leaves the whole affair so diluted and dubious that no man's vote will be determined by it, and thus the main object of the entire negotiation will be frustrated. Moreover, even if the thing appeared to be beyond all dispute, we have no guarantee that it would remain so. Thus the McKinley reduction of duty on French works of art has all along been supposed to be solely the work of Mr. Whitelaw Reid. We had his word for it, and, except for a vague claim on the part of the American hog, there seemed to be no one to contest with him for the honor. But now we come upon a letter addressed by the French Society for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Property to the Minister for Foreign Affairs, asserting that the said reduction was voted by the "American Chambers" as "a direct consequence of the labors" of Count de Kératry. Evidently, it is going to be very hard for the American voter to know, this fall, who his real benefactors are.

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A noteworthy development of the labor question in the Eastern States is the establishment in recent years of a number of shoe manufactories in the smaller cities and towns of Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Vermont. This is the result of the troubles with the "walking delegates" and other obnoxious accessories of the labor unions in the cities where this industry was formerly concentrated. Many a manufacturer has had the experience of one who recently closed his big factory in Haverhill, and explained his course by saying, "I am tired of being bulldozed by labor unions." The single factory in the small town escapes these troubles, its employees being as a rule men of some character, who are not ready to throw up work at the beck of any loafer who may come to the front in a union. A few years ago the agitators thought that they were going to "run" the whole industry of shoemaking, but they are slowly learning their mistake.

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The "Society of Loyal Volunteers," of whose founding in Washington we recently spoke, has published its "Prospectus and Constitution," in which the aims and methods of the Society are set forth in detail. The plan contemplates the organization of branch societies in every State and county, which are to be in relations with the national society, and are to act partly as mutual benefit associations, partly as agencies for securing a revision of the pension laws in the interest of the deserving and to the discomfiture of the unworthy. Among the "facts and lessons" which the Society undertakes to "teach and maintain," the following are specimens: "The volunteer armies . . . were inspired by no hope of individual gain or glory, except such as they might share with all their countrymen. . . . The weakness of every company, regiment, battalion, and division was in the shirks, cowards, and vice-destroyed men who encumbered its muster-rolls, devoured its subsistence, and crowded honest but disabled men out of its hospitals. Such men do not hesitate to-day to live on the generous gratitude of the people through payments made on pensions obtained by fraud or at the expense of honor. . . . We demand that the pension legislation of the past and the future shall be so revised that the *honor* as well as the necessities of the soldiers and the sailors shall be fully recognized and jealously guarded." Whatever the success of the Society may be, nothing but good can result from such utterances as these, coming from the men they do—all volunteer soldiers of honorable record.

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The last news we had from the Harney Peak tin mines represented that the company controlling the same was in a quandary whether to go ahead and crush the great quantities of ore taken out, with the imperfect machinery on hand, or wait till a six-hundred-stamp mill could be made and brought upon the ground. While they were cogitating on this problem, Prof. Claypool of Akron, Ohio, one of the editors of the *American Geologist*, was making a visit to the Black Hills. He writes to the trade journal *Hardware*, in answer to a special request from the editor, that "there is scarcely enough ore taken from all the mines together to keep a

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stamp mill of fair size at work." Also "that the present attitude in the region is one of suspense, and it is difficult to say what the next move will be." We should think most likely the next move would be the publication of a lot of fresh lies in a London *Mining Journal*, to be followed by a speech in the United States Senate like the following:

"In that portion of the States of South Dakota and Wyoming known as the Black Hills, there have been discovered *and developed* within the last six years the most extensive and probably the richest quartz tin mines thus far found upon the globe. . . . The ore is very rich in places, and the gulches contain a large amount of stream or placer tin, which has been successfully worked for a number of years and *many tons have been put upon the market.*"

This extract from a speech of Senator Moody advocating a duty of four cents a pound on block tin was delivered August 12, 1890, and may be found, together with a deal of similar rubbish, on page 8453 of the *Congressional Record* at that date. It goes very well with the prediction of Senator Allison that within one year after the passage of the new duty on tin plate we should be making all the tin plate that we use.

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Politicians and stump-speakers rack their brains to devise out-of-the-way arguments and unexpected "issues" in behalf of their party, and are blind to the powerful effect on the popular mind of obvious facts and plain inferences from them. One such set of facts relates to economy in the administration of the Government. Republicans are talking with much bravado about their billion-dollar Congress, but they are secretly aware that it is a highly dangerous thing to boast of. The thinking voters do not want extravagance in legislation, because they know it means, in the long run, heavier taxation. The plain people of the country can be made to see and approve the wisdom of economy in public affairs, just as they do in their own affairs. When they look at the record of the expenses of the Federal Government by years, they will see set down for 1890-'91 the sum of $365,773,905. Glancing up the column, they will observe that this is the greatest amount expended since 1868, when the country was just emerging from the war. Pursuing their investigation, they will notice that the average yearly expenditures under the last Democratic administration were upwards of $100,000,000 less than the outlay during the past fiscal year. When they reflect that this vast increase represents no practical increase in the benefits of good government, so far as they are concerned, they cannot but favor, other things being equal, the party which stands for economy. By a year from now, the full effects of the extravagant appropriations of the last Congress will have got into the records for the consideration of voters, and the comparison is certain to be still more heavily against the Republicans. Indeed, everything now points to a deficit at the end of the current fiscal year, and if the Republican party has to go with it into a national campaign, it will have to explain how its rule has brought about an adverse balance for the first time in thirty-six years. Then we shall not have to listen to so much praise of extravagance.

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Mr. Albert Shaw reports in the *Christian Union* a suggestive incident bearing upon the attitude of the Catholic Church towards the public-school system. The town of Faribault, Minn., has a deserved reputation for its public schools, though a parochial school has also been sustained by the three Catholic churches in the place. But on the 22d of August the leading priest, Father Conry, offered to turn over this school to the Board of Education, to be included in the general system of the town. Four days later he submitted the same offer in writing, and it was unanimously accepted. He made no conditions whatever, and alleged as his motive in making the transfer his desire to secure for the children of Catholics the superior advantages of the public-school system, especially "a perfect preparation for the duties and responsibilities of American citizenship." The Board will accordingly enter upon control of the parochial school building and grounds, under no obligation to retain the Catholic teachers, and prepared to assign the Catholic children of the various sections of the town to the schools nearest them. What lends added significance to this unusual step is the fact that it must have been taken with the approval of Archbishop Ireland. That prelate's thorough-going Americanism has been too often made manifest, however, to cause surprise at this latest display of it.

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A newspaper of the republic of Salvador, the *Correo Nacional*, gives an account of the late occurrences in connection with the Pacific Mail steamship *City of Panama*. It seems that a certain Gen. Letona, under indictment for crime in the city of San Miguel, had escaped to Nicaragua, whence he took passage on the steamer mentioned. Learning of this, the Judge of the court where his case was pending applied to the national authorities for the arrest of the criminal when the steamer should put in at the Salvadorian port of La Union. It was this writ of a Salvadorian court, therefore, that Capt. White refused to recognize. When that fact was reported to the Government, the authorities ordered the captain to delay the sailing of his vessel, as they had a perfect right to do under their contract with the company, quite irrespective of the affair immediately in hand. But the captain at once put to sea without the requisite permission from the authorities of the port, who thereupon applied to the courts for a decree of condemnation, in accordance with the code of navigation, and it was provisionally granted them. When the steamer arrived at its next port of call in Salvador, La Libertad, the second officer of the harbor went aboard and proposed to take charge of the ship by virtue of this decree. That was the occasion when Capt. White's anger blazed forth, as recounted in the despatches, and he threatened to throw the officer overboard. A few hours later he weighed anchor, again without the necessary license, and, what is more, against the express advice of the United States Consul in La Libertad. That official had some glimmering of knowledge of international law, and urged the captain at least to await advices from Washington. But the latter's Jingo blood was up, and he steamed away, completing his record for that trip by again violating the company's contract with Salvador in refusing to touch at Acajutla.

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This case seems surprising, but it is just what we have to expect under a policy of international bluster. The way our State Department handled the Barrundia affair was directly calculated to make the commanders of our merchantmen swagger up and down the coasts of South America, turning their vessels into the refuge of criminals, and daring any court to touch one of them. And as for our diplomatic officers, who know better, the example of ex-Minister Mizner is a sufficient warning that they must not meddle with our bullies of the sea. Our Consul at La Libertad has probably endangered his position by so much as urging Capt. White to wait till word could be had from Washington. Salvador is weak and can be insulted with impunity, though she proposes to make a suitable protest. But one of these days some Blaine-inspired captain will ignore the territorial jurisdiction of a first-class Power, and then the United States will have a chance to put their interpretation of international law to a real test.

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The *Mémorial Diplomatique*, which discusses all pending questions from the Franco-Austrian point of view, seeks to minimize in every way the importance of the Turkish concession to Russia in the matter of the Dardanelles, and says the Porte is shortly going to issue a circular setting forth that it does not "propose any modification of the Treaty of Paris or of Berlin, but simply an additional clause giving a wider liberty in the interpretation of the treaties," in so far as regards the passage of the Dardanelles. The *Mémorial* at the same time insinuates that the fuss in diplomatic circles over the incident has been got up by Prince Bismarck through some of his organs in the press, by way of showing what happens when the helm is taken out of old hands and put into young ones. He made a specialty of keeping the peace in the Balkan peninsula, and if a war broke out over Constantinople within two or three years of his retirement, it might be treated as a feather in his cap. But altogether apart from the attitude of Russia towards the Turks, the internal situation of the Empire is acknowledged on all hands to be very serious, and to threaten convulsions which may make a foreign war inevitable.

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### *THE NEW YORK REPUBLICAN PLATFORM AND CANDIDATE.*

THE resolutions adopted by the Republicans at Rochester endorse the two McKinley bills, the present Silver Act, and the principles of "genuine reform of the civil service." These are the principal features of the platform as regards national affairs. Before the Convention met, there had been some suggestions made in high quarters about ignoring the tariff question altogether, and making the fight this year on State issues exclusively. This, we believe, was the programme of Mr. Andrew D. White's friends, Mr. White himself being a very moderate protectionist, and not at all friendly to the McKinley Bill. But it is plain that this policy of ignoring the tariff legislation upon which the party had suffered martyrdom last year could not be followed without leading to disaster in other States, and notably in Ohio. If McKinley were ignored in New York, that would be a sign that McKinleyism was waning. A suspicion that it is waning in the Republican party is already afloat, and has been noticed by some of the more extreme protectionist journals with alarm. To give public confirmation to this unuttered belief would be a sure presage of disaster elsewhere. Therefore it was inevitable that McKinley, for better or for worse, should be endorsed by the Rochester Convention. We think that this is the weakest plank in the platform, and that it will repel a great many voters who would be otherwise inclined to support Mr. Fassett on State issues.

The silver question is treated in the following resolution :

"(6.) The act of July 14, 1890, provides for the purchase of the silver product of American mines and the issuing of the new Treasury note protected by a reserve of 100 cents worth of silver for every dollar issued. We commend this policy of maintaining gold and silver at a parity, the Treasury notes paid for silver to be kept at a par with gold. The voice of New York is emphatic against any degradation of the currency, and demands, with President Harrison, that 'every dollar issued by the Government, whether paper or coin, shall be as good as every other dollar.'"

The act of July 14, 1890, does *not* provide for the purchase of the silver product of American mines any more than of foreign mines. The use of such language by the platform-makers may imply that they did not know what the act of July 14, 1890, is, or it may mean that they are in favor of changing the law so that it shall provide for the purchase of all the silver product of American mines. That would be very bad policy indeed—bad in itself, and still worse in its teachings, since there is no more reason why the Government should buy the product of American silver mines than of American iron mines, which just now stand in more need of Government aid. It is a growing Republican notion that Government aid ought to be extended liberally to all sorts of decrepitudes. "This is a billion-dollar country," they tell us; therefore it is becoming to have a billion-dollar Congress, and to fling money around with a free hand, being careful to choose deserving objects of the national charities, such as silver-mine and sugar-plantation owners—provided that they are Americans. The latter half of the silver plank, which demands that all the dollars be kept of equal value with each other, is in keeping with President Harrison's Albany speech, and is right.

The resolution on civil-service reform is a curiosity, in view of a recent illustration which has been rendered more conspicuous than ever by the nomination of Mr. Fassett for the office of Governor. We have already commented on the brazen transaction by means of which Col. Erhardt was pushed out and Mr. Fassett thrust into the office of Collector of Customs. There was really no need of saying anything about civil-service reform in this Convention. A moderate regard for appearances would have kept out both this resolution and the one in which Gov. Hill's civil-service methods are condemned. What Hill has done in this regard, Platt and Fassett have done more conspicuously and with equal brass, their opportunities being on a larger scale—more's the pity, since Mr. Fassett is fit for better things. Had his nomination come to him unsought and been bestowed upon him in recognition of his personal merits and qualifications for the position, by a convention which was really a body reflecting the will of the party instead of registering the will of its boss, it would have contained elements of great popular strength. But there is little or no pretence that it came to him in this way. Everybody knows that he was nominated because Platt decided, long before the Convention met, that he should be. Everybody familiar with Mr. Fassett's career knows, also, that Platt selected him for the position because he has for years shaped his course in public life in willing obedience to Platt's orders.

Mr. Fassett is an able man, and has had precisely the experience in public life which is calculated to fit him for the duties of the office of Governor. He is a man of liberal education, a trained lawyer, and has served for four successive terms in the State Senate, giving close attention and careful study to all matters of State legislation, and especially to those relating to municipal government. He has always been a consistent supporter of ballot reform, and in his speech accepting the nomination he pledged himself to make that reform and municipal reform the leading issues of his campaign. Throughout his career in the Senate he has been an uncompromising and undeviating Republican, and it is noticeable that in his speech of acceptance he puts fealty to party above all else. He is now, as he always has been, a Republican "first, last, and all the time." We have watched his career in the Senate closely for eight years. If he has at any time during that period failed to obey implicitly the orders of his boss, we have never detected the fact. He has on several occasions turned squarely about under those orders, though the doing so subjected him to great public humiliation. If now he were to be elected Governor, while he would carry into that office honesty, ability, and experience of great value, he would carry into it also increased subjection to Platt. Every voter, therefore, when the time to cast his ballot arrives, must consider whether he is willing to see Plattism in power in the State Administration, as it is at present in power in the Custom-house and other branches of the Federal service in this State. Whether the possible completion of ballot-reform would be a sufficient offset for a certainty of this kind, is a question for every voter to decide for himself.

### *NEGRO LABOR IN SOUTHERN MANUFACTURES.*

STUDENTS of social economy whose solution of the negro question is exportation to Liberia, and those who explain Southern competition in certain lines of manufacture with the facile cry of "cheap labor," should follow up a line of investigation lately opened by the *Tradesman*, an organ of Southern manufacturers, published in Chattanooga, Tenn.

Two years ago a circular was sent to various employers of colored labor throughout the South, asking for information as to the comparative wages and efficiency of skilled and unskilled white and negro labor, and whether those employers reached by the circular intended to continue the employment of negroes. Replies were received from many masters representing rolling-mills, furnaces, saw-mills, logging companies, cotton-presses, etc., and employing some 7,000 laborers, of whom about one-fourth were either skilled or semi-skilled. The general tenor of these answers indicated satisfaction with the negroes (particularly in the heavier and hotter work of Southern industries), both as common and skilled workmen; expressed a practically unanimous determination to continue their employment, to advance them into the higher and better-paid ranks as rapidly as possible; and clearly showed that, while the negro has greatly improved in the last fifteen years in trustworthiness, skill, and general efficiency, those who employ him have learned not to discriminate between black and white in the matter of wages, giving to both the same pay for the same work.

Again, in July of this year, the same journal, in view of the remarkable development of Southern manufactures, repeated the inquiry, adding to the later circular three queries: Are negro laborers improving in efficiency? What effect has education had on the younger generation? Does education add to or detract from the negro's efficiency as a workman? Some 200 replies from employers of 6,400 unskilled and about 1,000 skilled colored workmen were received and tabulated. For skilled laborers, the highest wages reported is $3, the lowest $1.10, and the average $1.75 per day. For unskilled, the highest reported is $1.50, the lowest 60 cents, and the average $1.10 per day. Twenty-seven employers of 1,379 negroes see no difference in capacity between white and black laborers; forty-nine employers of 3,214 negroes prefer them to white men in the same capacity, and thirty-five employers of 1,441 negroes prefer white labor. An East Birmingham manufacturer writes: "Our men are about the average; do better than white men at same wages,

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are more obedient, work harder, and give better satisfaction than white labor." Two Georgia foundry-owners report respectively, "The degree of efficiency is about the same, with equal pay for the same work"; "as laborers in the machine shop and foundry, we prefer the negro." A Louisiana lumberman, employing some 400 negroes, testifies: "they are learning to do the work about as well as the whites." A South Carolina manufacturer employing 100 negroes answers: "Common negro labor is the best in the world; we are not so decided as to skilled labor." A mining superintendent replies: "The negro is the best common laborer, but he cannot acquire the skill of the white man—at least he don't." A Texas manager of a cotton-press reports that for his work "negroes are better than white." A Virginia miller finds that "common labor, colored, compares favorably with white. Skilled, not up to average." Of ten replies selected at random from various parts of Virginia, four prefer negro labor, three prefer white, and three see no difference. An experienced Tennessee employer sums up the case thus: "When muscle alone is wanted, we find good negro labor very efficient, but when some degree of judgment is to be exercised, we prefer white labor."

One hundred and nine employers of 6,700 negroes declare without qualification their intention to continue to employ them, sixteen express doubt as to what they will do, and seventy employers of 2,413 state that their colored laborers are steadily increasing in efficiency. One characteristic answer throws some side light on politics at the South: "No, as compared with ante-war times; yes, as compared with six or eight years ago, when they were under the lead of low-lived white politicians, and were thinking more about forty acres and a mule and social equality than they are now." On the other hand, forty-three employers of 2,279 negroes deny improvement, and fifteen, giving work to 1,367, express doubt.

While much time, attention, and money have been devoted to the education of the Southern negro, the answers to that part of the circular involving the subject of education and its effects represent, we believe, the first attempt to focus the practical man's point of view. Only one hundred and thirty employers replied to this portion of the circular; of these but thirty, employing 2,860 negroes, endorse the education at present available for the younger generation, and state their belief that it adds to the efficiency of the negro to educate him. The doubters number thirteen, and ninety-six employers of 3,820 negroes are of the opinion that such education as the younger generation of the colored race has received has not been of benefit to them, and "that, generally speaking, it detracts from a negro's efficiency to educate him." The broader and sounder judgment of the minority may be summarized in the words of an Alabama manufacturer: "Educating the younger men has had a good effect, and we think the shortest and best way out of our race troubles is to educate both black and white. It has added much to the efficiency of the colored men."

Some of the reasons given by the Philistine majority why sauce for the (white) goose is not sauce for the (black) gander, while illustrating the selfishness and shortsightedness of average human nature, suggest both to the educator and the legislator probable weak points in our system of free public instruction, and a possible remedy in the direction of industrial and ethical training. When we are told that the young "educated" negro does not care to work at manual labor, that he prefers either to be supported in aristocratic idleness by his illiterate, hard-working parents, or "to live by his wits," *i. e.*, turn sleeping-car porter, barber, poor preacher, or poorer teacher, we are inclined to suspect that it is not education which confuses the negro, but its imperfect application and crude assimilation, superinducing the temporary evils of idleness, insolence, and arrogance. It is evident that reading, writing, and the theoretical training which as a rule alone constitutes education for the Southern negro youth, create an aristocracy, with all the vices which ordinarily accompany an idle *nouveau-riche* class.

The colored laborer is and must be the dependence of the South, and the more his general quickness and intelligence be cultivated, and the wider the range of labor vocations assigned to him, the more rapidly will the color-line fade away. The old-fashioned and widespread belief that colored people cannot learn skilled employments, must be relegated to the tomb of many other false ideas. The province of the masters of new and growing Southern industries is to choose from the best of the colored people, and train them for special uses; in the process of artificial selection based on natural aptitude, education, even of an imperfect kind, must be an invaluable factor. This whole question of the education and efficiency of the negro workman of the South can be best answered by asking ourselves what effect our present system of education has on the growing generation of white laborers. Are we turning out more farmers and skilled mechanics, or are we filling up the overcrowded ranks of "genteel" occupations? If we consider that the negro of to-day is hardly a generation removed from serfdom, that he has had to seek light and life in the surging sea of political and race conflict, there seems no reason to doubt that the effect of education, so far as fitness for labor is concerned, is identical on the youth of both the black and the white races.

## *THE NEW IMMIGRATION.*

THE report just published by the Treasury Department on "Arrivals of Alien Passengers and Immigrants in the United States from 1820 to 1890," exhibits the most recent statistics on the important subject of foreign immigration to this country, and a study of the figures there collected brings out some very significant facts. The report adopts the commonly accepted estimate that the number of immigrants arriving between the foundation of the government and the year 1820 did not exceed 250,000. Starting with this assumption, and following the official records which date from that year, it is then estimated that the total number of immigrants from the close of the Revolution to June 30, 1890, amounts to 15,567,000. From a statement of immigration by decades it appears that more than one-third (5,246,613) of the whole number have arrived during the last ten years of this period; and from a supplementary table it can be shown that the rate of immigration for 1891 has advanced 22 per cent. beyond that for 1890. That is to say, the flood which is already so enormous is steadily and rapidly increasing in quantity.

Passing to consider the quality of immigration, we are met by equally striking facts. The various tables which bear on the point of nationality afford the following data. Prior to 1868 the great bulk of immigration was from the British Isles and Germany, these two nations furnishing about 85 per cent., while the rest came chiefly from France, British North America, Switzerland, and, during a brief period, from Mexico and the West Indies. More than half of the whole immigration has come in since 1868, and the statistics for these twenty-two years show a marked change in its character. During this later period the most prominent nationalities have contributed the following proportions:

| | Per cent. |
|---|---|
| England | 14.6 |
| Ireland | 13.6 |
| Scotland | 2.9 |
| Germany | 27.5 |
| Denmark, Norway, and Sweden | 11.0 |
| Russia and Poland | 3.6 |
| Austria-Hungary | 4.9 |
| Italy | 4.2 |
| France | 1.5 |

These average percentages show, as has been said, a marked change in the character of the immigration; but, on studying the figures year by year, the magnitude of the change becomes still more apparent. In the last decade (1860-1870) of the earlier period, England's percentage was 24.54; since that time it has fluctuated, but with a tendency to decrease. Thus, for the year 1870 it was 23.20, for 1880 it was 13, and for 1890 it was 12.5. It should be remarked that a decreasing percentage does not indicate a falling off in the actual immigration of any particular nationality; for, with the exception of China, the immigration from every country is increasing. It simply indicates that the increase of that particular nationality does not keep pace with the general increase of all immigration. The Irish percentage has also fluctuated, and also shows a tendency to decrease. It is well known that the Irish immigration during the forties was enormous, amounting during that decade to 45.57 per cent. This makes the general average (1820–1890) high; but for the year 1870 it was only 15 per cent., for 1880 it was 15.6, and for 1890 it fell to 11.6. The Scotch immigration, which has always been of minor importance, is likewise failing to maintain its percentage. So much for the British Isles.

The German element, which has always been a strong one, amounting altogether (1820-1890) to 29.20 per cent. of all immigration, reached its highest point between

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1850 and 1870, and since then has declined. Thus, for the year 1870 it constituted 30.5 per cent., while for last year it was only 20.3 per cent. Norway, Sweden, and Denmark played a small part in the immigration of the early period. Since 1870, their percentage has averaged 11, but it has lately fallen, and for the year 1890 was only 10. As the influence of the Teutonic races declines, that of the Latin and Slavic increases. Russia, Austria-Hungary, and Italy are the leading representatives of the latter, and the immigration from those three countries is of recent date. That from Austria-Hungary first reached 1 per cent. in 1870, that from Italy in 1872, and that from Russia and Poland in 1873. In the year 1880 Austria-Hungary contributed 3.7 per cent., Italy 2.6 per cent., and Russia and Poland 1.5 per cent. During the next decade their rate of increase makes a sudden advance, and in 1890 Austria-Hungary furnished 12.3 per cent., Italy 11.4 per cent., and Russia and Poland 9.8 per cent. To appreciate fully the significance of these figures, it must be borne in mind that while the percentages are thus changing, the total volume of immigration is steadily increasing, so that there is a two-fold influence at work.

The relative merit of different races cannot be discussed in this summary; but it is instructive to note how the immigrants of the several nationalities compare in social condition. The character of the immigrants in general is indicated by the official records of their occupations. During the last decade 5 per cent. have been reported as belonging to the professional class, 10.3 per cent. as skilled laborers, and 39.6 per cent. as unskilled laborers. The occupation of 2.2 per cent. was not reported at all, and the remaining 47.4 per cent. were without occupation, nine-tenths of these being women and children. The percentages of skilled and unskilled laborers in the immigration of each leading nationality, during the same period, can be calculated from the yearly records; the results are exhibited and compared in the following table:

| Nationality. | *Skilled. Per cent. | Unskilled. Per cent |
|---|---|---|
| All immigration | 10.8 | 39.6 |
| England | 17.7 | 32.2 |
| Ireland | 5.6 | 52.8 |
| Germany | 12.0 | 29.2 |
| Denmark, Norway, and Sweden | 7.0 | 47.0 |
| Russia and Poland | 8.9 | 43.4 |
| Austria-Hungary | 6.4 | 48.5 |
| Italy | 7.8 | 58.5 |

* Includes professional.

These figures show that the change which is now taking place is a distinct deterioration. Some definition of the terms professional, skilled, and miscellaneous, as they are used in the official reports of occupations, may add to the meaning of these statistics. The professional class comprises chiefly musicians, clergymen, teachers, and physicians. The principal skilled occupations, in the order of their numerical strength, are tailors, miners, carpenters, clerks, masons, mechanics, shoemakers, and mariners. While of those whose occupation is reported as miscellaneous, 68 per cent. are laborers, 3 per cent. merchant dealers, and the rest farmers and servants, in equal proportions.

Among the points which have a less obvious meaning, it is interesting to note the proportion of the sexes and the ages of the immigrants. During the last decade the average of males was 61 per cent. of all immigration; but the several nationalities vary considerably from this figure. The Irish immigration shows the least difference in the proportion of the sexes, the percentage of males being 51. Germany follows with a percentage of 57. For England and the Scandinavian countries the figure is 61; while of the immigrants from Russia and Poland 65 per cent. are males, of those from Austria-Hungary 68 per cent., and of the Italian immigrants 79 per cent. This preponderance of males in the nationalities whose immigration is increasing fastest could only be appropriate to an undeveloped frontier; but the statistics of the reported destination of immigrants show that the bulk of them intend to settle in New York, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts.

During the last decade 21.5 per cent. of the immigrants were under fifteen years of age, 68 per cent. were between fifteen and forty, and 10.5 per cent. were over forty. Comparing the several nationalities with this average, it appears that Germany and England furnish more than their share of children. Ireland and the Scandinavian countries furnish the smallest percentages of children and old persons; 78.6 per cent. of the Irish immigration being between fifteen and forty, and 73 per cent. of the Swedes and Norwegians. Russia and Austria also furnish more than their share of children; while Italy shows the highest percentage of persons beyond the prime of life.

To sum up the matter, the change now going on is not an increase in the earlier sort of immigration, which has played a prominent part in the development of the country, but rather the growth of a new and distinct sort of immigration, which exists along with the other, and promises to be soon the more influential of the two. What its influence will be is more than doubtful. From its quality this new immigration adds heavily to the lowest class in the economic scale. It threatens disorder by disturbing the proportion of the sexes. It consists largely of persons too old to be adopted by the community of which they become a part. Finally, it is not related to us in race or language, but has habits of thought and behavior radically foreign to those which have so far prevailed in the United States. These facts are too patent to be missed and too significant to be disregarded.

## *CHANGES IN SUMMER MIGRATION.*

If in mid-September of each year, when the season at our large summer resorts usually closes, a census could be made of the number of visitors during the season just past, and their average stay computed, the resulting figures would probably be very instructive. It is doubtful whether statistics of the kind for, say, the last ten years would show much if any increase of patronage at those resorts. Yet not many years ago the newspapers were telling us constantly of the local "booms" at those places; of rise of real-estate values; of monster hotels going up or projected; of new pavilions, piers, and beach walks. But now, for the most part, the local story of new hotel enterprise is of failure much more than of success. The printed watering-place gossip tells us little about material growth and turns vapidly to social amusements and the "summer girl." When we do hear of local growth, it is apt to be in the direction of the small and "family" hotel or of some form of the "cottage" system. This striking change has come, too, during a time when not only our population has decidedly increased, but also wealth, the love of luxury, and the desire and opportunity for summer leisure. While our summer migration has greatly expanded, a less and less proportion of it evidently goes to the "regular" resorts, and for a rather more transitory stay when it does go.

Where then does it go, and through what new summer paths is it tending? That our ocean steamships—or, rather, the steamships of the foreigners—absorb a part of the increased migration is obvious—a fact due not less to the larger number of families who can afford the European trip than to cheaper rates, quicker time, well-nigh absolute safety, and the lower excursion prices. But this accounts, at its highest estimate, for a relatively small part of the great increment of summer migration. It must be sought for in the more sequestered farm-houses and remoter country villages; in the isolated cottage, or the isolated groups of cottages in the woods or on the shore and in summer camps. Just as we see our civic holidays becoming steadily days of rest and recreation more than of noisy celebration, so our summer migration is seeking the rural quietudes and moving away from the old centres of mere fashion, which are coming to rely on that special and somewhat limited group of patrons which craves social gayety not less in the great summer hotel than during winter on the city avenue. The great resorts are becoming the summer homes of the class, while the remoter places are sought for by the mass.

Statistics on the size and direction of the new current are unavailable, but we can find clues. Take, for example, the White Mountain region, where up to recently the "big" hotel, and usually with big prices, was so much the feature of the summer life of the region that nothing else was heard of. But now we learn constantly of the change of the farm-life of the region into a boarding-house régime. The eye of any traveller who has passed recently through the great White Mountain "horseshoe" sees everywhere, usually a little apart from the main routes of the tourists, the farm-houses where outward signs tell of the summer boarder. In a less definite but larger region, another and official evidence of the same movement recently appeared. It was a report of the

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Connecticut Board of Health calling, we believe for the first time, attention to the great number of urban residents seeking summer health at the secluded farm houses and warning them of the danger incurred from defective drainage and other unsanitary things at the ordinary farm dwelling. A recent writer in the *Century*, who states that for years he has made long tours by private conveyance through out-of-the-way places of New England, speaks of his amazement at finding to what secluded nooks of the country the city sojourners are penetrating. They are not merely the classes of moderate wealth either, but often the upper middle class, sometimes the positively rich, and all exponents of the growing and wholesome desire to seek the summer rest rather than the summer whirl. But for the fact that the head of the family is apt to want a place accessible to him by railroad for his weekly or fortnightly visit, the prevailing hunt for the seclusions would no doubt be greatly intensified.

A sub-feature of the summer migration is the steady tendency to prolong the rural life at both ends—to go to the country in some cases with the April arbutus and come away with the October aster. Aside from the evidence of the later opening of some of the city schools, this fact of longer sojourns in the country must stand from observation, but its reality cannot be questioned. Its suggestion is also of a growing national love of Nature and her quietudes, and of a certain shrinking away from the exactions of "society" and of fashion. Indeed, we seem drifting pretty fast towards the English idea of a much longer country season and a much shorter one in town; and but for the city schools and the defectiveness, as yet, of rural systems of education, we should see the tendency grow faster. The English writers who used to deride the American love of what they called the hotel "caravansary" in both city and country, will find a decided change when they visit us now or hereafter.

Of the economic, social, and physical readjustments, many of them good, some bad, growing out of this state of things—of the transfer of city dollars to the country, of the results to country life itself in village and on farm, of the urban impact and contact—much could be written in a general way, but little can be accurately measured. The changes, however, from the causes named must be immense and must become more visible in their aggregates as the recasting of summer migration in its forms, forces, and lines of movement goes on.

## LOWELL.

PIEVE DI CADORE, August 27.

IN the notice of the life of Lowell in the *Nation* of August 13, there is a passage which seems to me to admit, if not require, a fuller explanation than is there given. After mentioning the death of his first wife and the consequent change in his manner of existence, it says: "And although he allowed his name to stand in connection with anti-slavery societies, he was generally regarded as having cooled in sympathy. This was unjustly attributed to his becoming, in 1855, a professor in Harvard University, then rightly regarded as very conservative." The disclaimer is correct, but purely negative; and, as a fact, the imaginary cooling, which was nothing more than the natural effect of grief and a morbid melancholy, preceded any hint of his appointment to succeed Longfellow, and was broken up by it and his subsequent visit to Europe.

It happened that I made Lowell's acquaintance shortly after the death of his first wife and while he was still overwhelmingly affected by it. I went to Cambridge to secure the assistance of the literary men resident there for the carrying on of an art journal which I had then projected and afterwards edited, the *Crayon*, and the acquaintance grew into a warm friendship, of which one of the first fruits was an invitation to come and stay with him at Elmwood. He was in a state of apathy and incipient hypochondriasis, from which, as one of his later letters shows, my intrusion into his solitude partially aroused him, and he was grateful for the diversion. The grief for the death of his wife was keen, and his feeling was expressed in the "Ode to Happiness," which he read me from his note-book one day during this visit. He spoke of it as unfinished, but, so far as I recollect, it was then as it was printed later. What oppressed him, however, more than his bereavement was a profound conviction that his brain was menaced by, or actually undergoing, a process similar to ossification, and that he was doomed to die, as his mother had died, insane; and this gloomy presentiment, coupled with his sorrow, produced that apathy which was regarded as a cooling off of his human sympathies; he considered himself as already the victim of a terrible death, and all his constitutional buoyancy could not resist the obsession.

I had just gone through one of those disillusions which young men consider great griefs, and this excited a certain sympathy which took him out of himself, while the efforts I made to arouse him out of his apathy and despondency were grateful to him and, I hope, useful. I was an intense admirer of his poetry, and had most of the then published poems by heart, and I made him talk of them and read me what he had unprinted. He told me that he had written "Sir Launfal" in two evenings, and had never retouched it—an omission I gently reproved him for, but he replied in a way which made me think that he did not hold his work in such high esteem as to induce him to spend much *labor limae* on it. The fact was, I suspect, that he could not take up revision without its becoming remaking, for his versification was so spontaneous that he could write in verse faster than in prose,* and it was easier to write new than to remodel the old. This facility was curiously shown in one of our Adirondack excursions. We had halted to camp on Tupper's Lake, and the guides and myself constructed for the occasion a huge bark shanty, and when it was finished, I said to Lowell, "We have built you a house; now give us an inscription for it"; and he began what I at first took for a reply, but what was really, without casting about for a word, an impromptu:

> "Whom rain doth welter
> Or heat swelter,
> Respect this shelter,"

and went on with a history of the shanty, the part taken by each of us in the work, giving the names of the whole party, which was composed of ten visitors and nine guides, all without an instant's hesitation and as if it were a part of the conversation.

He did afterwards, however, in spite of his reluctance to retouch his work, rewrite for the *Crayon* the little poem so well known, "The First Snow-Fall," which had been for years circulating in the newspapers, gathering misprints. He sent me many contributions for the *Crayon*, for which he could never be induced to accept the slightest remuneration. He never could remember or rewrite anything that was lost, and he used to tell with a comic distress the losing of "the funniest thing he ever wrote" in a German hotel, while he was abroad rubbing up his German preparatory to his assuming his professorship at Harvard.

Prior to undertaking the publication of the *Crayon*, I had been engaged as art editor on the *Evening Post*, then edited by Bryant; and talking with him of Lowell, I thought I perceived a certain soreness at the criticism Lowell had passed on him in the 'Fable for Critics,' and I mentioned it to Lowell. When he came to New York to embark for Europe, on the occasion alluded to, I gave him a dinner, chiefly to bring him and Bryant together, as they had never met; and Lowell, remembering Bryant's feeling on the subject of the criticism, did his best to captivate the elder poet, and, as I satisfied myself later by talking with Bryant, succeeded completely, and though there were in the company several of Lowell's old friends, Bayard Taylor, Charles Sumner, E. P. Whipple, and others, the conversation between the two was hardly interrupted during the entire evening. We separated at a late hour, Bryant and I leaving Lowell and Taylor at the Turkish café of Oscanyan enjoying a nargileh.

I resided in London during a large part of the time in which Lowell represented the United States there, and can endorse what the *Nation* says of his political aspect. He was accused of servility to rank and of indifference to the social pretensions of Americans in London. He simply understood his business at the court to which he had been sent, which was, as I have since heard it formulated by one of the greatest of English diplomats, Lord Dufferin, not to introduce his countrymen to the society of the court, but to represent his Government at that court. Americans inflated by a local importance came to London wearing their Congressional-district halos, and expected to be presented to the Queen, wearing them; Lowell, measuring them by the larger standard of a court where all the world comes, declined to use his great personal influence to the disregard of that standard. His feeling, which was just and diplomatic, was that no American, because he is such, is entitled to a presentation at court or an introduction to English society, but that it is for the Queen in one case, and society in the other, to choose whom they will see, and that without some distinction which makes them of interest to the one and the other, the presentation is an intrusion. A Minister who considered it his duty to be the usher of all the Americans who come to London, would find that he had neither time nor influence for his diplomatic duties.

Lowell knew every detail of the court etiquette, and while, on the one hand, he never permitted himself to be led into a violation of it, on the other he never allowed any derogation of the ceremony which his position as the representative of a great Power entitled him to. He maintained that a sovereign demo-

*[Witness Lowell's own testimony in that inimitable "Letter from Boston" of December 27, 1846, written "in steamboat haste."—ED. NATION.]

> "Dear M., *By way of saving time*,
> I'll do this letter up in rhyme,
> Whose slim stream through four pages flows,
> Ere one is packed with tight-screwed prose,
> Threading the tube of an epistle
> Smooth as a child's breath through a whistle."

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cracy had the same right to the formalities established for the court as a monarchy, and abated none of them. A lady of rank at whose house I was visiting, expressed the desire to make the acquaintance of the Minister, and I undertook to make him acquainted with her wish. He inquired her rank, and as she was a marchioness, he replied, "I cannot, as Minister Plenipotentiary, make the first call on anything less than a duke; the Marquis must make the first call." People who know nothing of the importance of precedent may consider this snobbish in the representative of a republican country, but it was just this which made Lowell the stickler for the letter of the law of precedence which he was. He would not allow, even by a careless acquiescence in a neglect of one of the rules of diplomatic etiquette, any disregard of the least of them which might seem to abate the deference due him as the representative of a republic.

Your comment on his second wife, "an accomplished and agreeable woman," does very imperfect justice to her qualities. She was one of the noblest women I have ever known, and I knew her from early in her entry into his family nearly till the day of her death. She was fully worthy of him and made his married life with her supremely happy. He told me that his attachment for her had begun before he left home for Germany, but that he waited till he had proved by protracted absence that it was solid before declaring himself. My opinion is that she influenced his life even more than his first wife, though I judge of the earlier period only from what he and others who knew him then have told me. There was an intensity of sympathy in her nature, coupled with the highest moral standard, which he felt the full value of and reposed on. For reasons which I do not recollect, I did not at the time of their marriage write to congratulate him, but, a considerable time after, I did so and apologized for the neglect, and he replied that the congratulations "hit the white," for he was very happy. I have not, I believe, seen him since her death.

W. J. Stillman.

## LOMÉNIE'S MIRABEAU—II.

Paris, September 1, 1891.

We left Mirabeau after the events of the 5th and 6th of October, 1789, when the Duc d'Orléans asked of him, "When will Mirabeau serve the Crown?" These events produced a great effect on his mind; he predicted, with terrible eloquence, the dangers to which the royal family was exposed. "All is lost," he once said to M. de La Marck; "the King and the Queen will perish, and you will see it; the populace will beat their dead bodies." When M. de La Marck expressed the horror which this idea caused him, "Yes, yes," repeated Mirabeau, "they will beat their dead bodies. You do not understand the peril of their position; they ought to know it." Mirabeau was accused at the time of being in the pay of the Duc d'Orléans; he was in reality disgusted with the Duke's borrowing money from M. de La Marck and trying to enter into relations with Monsieur the Comte de Provence, the brother of the King (who afterwards became Louis XVIII.). He was convinced that if the King did not leave Paris, the dynasty and France were lost. But he did not wish him to retire to a frontier town like Metz, since, in such a case, he would seem to be under the protection of foreigners; he wished him to go to Rouen, to call round him the faithful national guards, and to convoke another legislative chamber. The Comte de Provence read the memoir in which Mirabeau developed these ideas, and said that the King was too irresolute to adopt it. "The weakness and the indecision of the King are indescribable. Do you wish to have an idea of his character? Imagine ivory balls covered with oil, and try to keep them together."

The enemies of the Duc d'Orléans held him responsible for the troubles of the 5th and 6th of October. Lafayette urged upon the King the necessity of sending him to England with an official diplomatic mission. The Duke, after much hesitation, consented. Mirabeau, who was jealous of Lafayette, had promised to support the Duke's resistance in the Chamber, and when he learned from a letter from the Duc de Biron that the Duke had accepted a passport for England, he said to his friends: "See, read! They say that I belong to the Duc d'Orléans's party; why, I would not have him for my valet!" From that day all relations between them ceased.

If Mirabeau had thought for a moment that he could form, in the Assembly and in the country, under cover of the popular name of the Duc d'Orléans, a party of which he would be the real chief, he was forced to give up that hope. He tried now to form a cabinet in the English fashion and to enter it. The Ministers were not present in the Assembly, and Mirabeau showed the inconveniences of this exclusion. They merely formed the King's Council; they were not in reality the representatives of the Chamber. All these questions, with which we are now so familiar—ministerial responsibility, the solidarity of the members of a cabinet—were then entirely new. Mirabeau had an interview with Lafayette, in which the ministerial question was discussed. He was obliged to reckon with the great popularity of Lafayette, though he considered him a man of little political foresight. (Among his friends he used to call him Gilles-César or Cromwell-Grandison.) Lafayette, on his part, says in his Memoirs that "the immorality of Mirabeau shocked me. In spite of the pleasure found in his conversation, and my admiration for his sublime talents, I could not help showing him a want of esteem which wounded Mirabeau."

Mirabeau also saw Necker, who told him frankly that he could not be in the same cabinet with him. "My strength," said Necker to him, "consists in morality; you are too clever not to understand some day the necessity of this help. Till that moment arrives, it may suit the King, in present circumstances, to have you as his Minister, but we cannot be Ministers together." Mme. de Staël gives these words, which she had directly from her father, in the book, 'The Character of M. Necker, and his Private Life.' It is easy to imagine that Mirabeau hated Necker; in a letter to Lafayette, two days after the visit, he speaks of "the brutal and delirious pride of the miserable charlatan who has brought the throne and France nigh to ruin, and who persists in consummating this ruin rather than confess his own incapacity." Meanwhile, Mirabeau took the most brilliant and active part in the work of the Assembly. He made magnificent speeches on the return to the nation of the church property; on the new administrative organization of France; on the finances; on the admission of the Ministers to the Assembly. He spoke on the necessity of martial law, somewhat on the model of the "Riot Act." He was getting to see the necessity of fortifying the executive power.

At the beginning of 1790, Mirabeau became in reality the secret adviser of the Crown. This is clearly proved by the correspondence of Mirabeau and the Comte de La Marck, published by M. de Bacourt—an inestimable document for the history of the Revolution, which appeared in 1851. The Queen Marie Antoinette had taken the initiative; she had slowly and with much difficulty acquired some influence over the King. "The King," said Mirabeau afterwards, "has only one man near him: it is his wife." Marie Antoinette was no longer the gay and frivolous hostess of Trianon; she was now the true daughter of Maria Theresa. The Comte de La Marck had repeatedly told her that Mirabeau could be managed and used by the Crown. She had long doubted it; her opinion of Mirabeau, as a man, had not changed, but, seeing the terrible situation of the King, she clung to every chance and to every hope. Mercy was the intermediary between her and M. de La Marck, and La Marck arranged the details of the first and secret meeting of Mirabeau and Mercy, which took place in a hôtel of the Faubourg St. Honoré. The negotiation, once entered upon, was conducted rapidly. Mirabeau wrote a memoir on the best means of reëstablishiug the royal authority; he wrote directly to the King, on the 10th of May, 1790, a letter which is a monument of eloquence and of political sense:

"I see so clearly that we are falling into anarchy and that we fall deeper every day; I am so indignant at the idea that I should have contributed only to a vast demolition, and the fear of seeing another chief of the State than the King is so insupportable to me, that I feel imperiously drawn to mix with public affairs at a moment when I thought I was only aspiring to rest. . . . I engage to serve with all my influence the true interests of the King, and in order that this assertion may not appear too vague, I declare that I believe a counter-revolution as dangerous and chimerical as I find chimerical, in France, the hope or the project of any sort of government without a chief invested with the amount of power necessary for the application of all the public forces to the execution of the law."

M. de La Marck made with Mirabeau a pecuniary arrangement which relieved the great orator for a moment from his monetary troubles. The sum of 208,000 francs was immediately given to him for the payment of his debts, of which he did not very exactly know the amount. He was to receive a salary of 6,000 francs a month till the end of the session of the Assembly, and, at the expiration of the session, a sum of a million represented by four bills written in the King's handwriting and deposited with M. de La Marck. It is idle to pass any judgment on these transactions. Mirabeau was always needy, he was venal, but not in the worst sense of the word; he was willing to receive money for the defence of ideas, but it was for the defence of his own ideas. When he was bribed by the Court, he was sincerely convinced of the necessity of defending the Crown.

Mirabeau did not pay his creditors; at least he paid very few of them. After his death, the oldest and most respectable of them were still unpaid; all the money from the Court was spent with his usual extravagance, and, when he died, the Assembly had to pay for his funeral. Every week he addressed two political memoirs to the Court. Fifty of them have been found and have been published by M. de Bacourt. The others have been destroyed. Once only did Mirabeau have an interview with the King and Queen. It took place on the 3d of July at Saint-Cloud. Mirabeau left Saint-Cloud charmed with the Queen, her grace, her dignity. "Nothing," said he, "will hinder me: I will die rather than fail to keep my promises." He was also touched by the calm resignation of the King and by the moderation of his political views. Madame

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Campan says in her memoirs that Mirabeau left the Queen with these words: "Madame, the monarchy is saved." Marie Antoinette, in her correspondence with Mercy, says on her part (June 12): "The negotiation with Mirabeau still continues, and, if he is sincere, I have reason to be satisfied"; and then she discusses at length the propositions of Mirabeau.

The Assembly was discussing at the time the question of the right to declare war and make peace. Mirabeau did not hesitate to stand by the royal prerogative on this question, and pronounced one of his best speeches. Barnave answered him, and there appeared immediately a libellous pamphlet, with the title, 'Great Treason of Count Mirabeau.' The entire year 1790 was full of the last oratorical efforts of Mirabeau; there was hardly a great constitutional question on which he did not speak, with his usual vehemence, with a singular mixture of ardor and of good sense, with the instinctive largeness of a real statesman. He continued to be in the pay of the Court, though he affected total independence in his conduct. Camille Desmoulins said of him: "He breakfasts with the Jacobins, he dines with the Society of '89, he sups with La Marck and the Royalists." He was now surrounded with homage on all sides: his overpowering talent had forced universal admiration; his name had become popular all over France. A traveller, coming from England, notes that the post horse called the *porteur* (the horse which leads the others) was named Mirabeau. His hospitality was magnificent and boundless.

His perpetual excesses had ruined his powerful constitution, and it is not necessary to suppose that he was poisoned in order to explain how such a vigorous man died after an illness of five days. Cabanis kept a journal of his friend's illness; his account is well known. It is well known, also, how, in the words of Talleyrand, Mirabeau dramatized his death: how he spoke to his friends like an ancient philosopher, how he received with a smile on his lips his old friend Talleyrand, with whom he wished to be reconciled. "J'emporte avec moi," said he to Frochot, "le deuil de la monarchie; après ma mort, les factieux s'en disputeront les lambeaux"—a splendid sentence which makes one think of Alexander and his generals.

His dramatic death, amid flowers and to the sound of music, was followed by a dramatic funeral, a sort of apotheosis. Lafayette, who had been so long his open or secret enemy, figured at the head of the national guard. Remember under what a cloud of contempt Mirabeau had entered the States-General; yet now a whole nation mourns him, and his name will go down to the most remote posterity, for he personified all that was great, and necessary, and inevitable in the French Revolution.

# Correspondence.

## A STANDING COURT OF ARBITRATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While all Europe is, as it were, an armed camp, Commissioners from the United States of America are traversing the four corners of the earth to welcome mankind to a peaceful contest in the arts and sciences at the forthcoming Columbian Exposition at Chicago. The contrast herein involved illustrates well the unique position which the Republic occupies among nations. Self-contained and self-reliant, too strong to stand in fear of aggression, and holding itself aloof from the complications of political intrigues and political alliances, this country is distinctly a power on the side of peace. It was, therefore, entirely in keeping with the fitness of things that the United States should have been one of the first to accept the system of arbitration as a substitute for the *ultima ratio regum*, as the best way of disposing of difficulties between contending nations.

Arbitration grows year by year in favor with thoughtful men. Nevertheless, there is a palpable defect in the merely occasional nature of the courts which are from time to time instituted for the settlement of special cases. When, as in the Geneva arbitration upon the *Alabama* claims, representatives of the contending countries are members of the court, being appointed *ad hoc*, they cannot but officiate under the disadvantage of seeming to be partisans or advocates, rather than judges. Appointed for the occasion only, they would not be human if they did not identify themselves more or less with their country's cause. On the other hand, where a third party is called in to arbitrate, it is almost inevitable that the losing side shou'd feel aggrieved by the decision. Thus, it has required the exercise of some self-control on the part of the French to restrain the expression of their mortification at the recent decision of the Czar of Russia upon the question of the boundary between French Guiana and Dutch Guiana. French disappointment with that award would have been loudly proclaimed but for the present *entente* between Russia and France. Again, as between two of the great military Powers, there might be the fear that the one to propose arbitration might risk the loss of prestige. In the place of such fitful, casual, unstable provision for arbitration for individual cases of dispute between two countries, what is wanted is a standing Court of Arbitration for all the nations of the earth.

To this Court of Peace each nation should nominate a single judge, or so many judges as might be agreed upon. The judges should hold their appointments for life. It goes without saying that each country would try to do itself honor by nominating to such an exalted office only persons illustrious for learning, intellect, and character. Holding office by a permanent tenure, the judges would make the law of nations their special study. At the same time, that tenure would inspire confidence in their decisions, as they would be placed above the fear of removal from office for joining in decisions adverse to their own countries. They would also be beyond suspicion of acting as partisans against foreign parties. The sittings of the Court of Peace might be held in the several capitals of the world in turn. These sittings and all the proceedings of the Court should be open, public, and clear as the sunlight in the eyes of all men. The parties to the various suits should submit their pleadings in writing, while the Court should have power to hear oral testimony and counsel in open court. All decisions of the Court should be given in writing, with the reasons upon which the decisions are founded. Compliance with its judgment should be required within a stated period. If after such a trial by such a court a righteous judgment were not arrived at, then might mankind despair.

"But," it will be asked, "how shall the judgments of the Court be enforced?" The answer is, "By the public opinion of the world." Any nation that refused to bow to the judgment of the Court, should be stigmatized by being called upon to withdraw its representative from the Court.

There is no intention to suggest that the establishment of the Court of Peace would do away with war. There can, at the same time, be no doubt that its existence would minimize resort to the arbitrament of the sword. It should also be well understood that because a nation had its representative in that court, that nation should not thereby oblige itself to submit for adjustment all or any of its differences with others. The fact of the existence of such a court would induce the nations to resort to it for a peaceful settlement of their differences. Thither, indeed, irritating questions which might otherwise result in the horrors of war, should be taken, and there be disposed of in a manner such as would secure peace with honor to both parties, with the consensus of all nations.

And by which country should the glorious mission be assumed of acting as the harbinger of peace? By the United States, we say emphatically. Armed to the teeth as are the great Powers of Europe, not one of them could afford to risk the imputation that a proposal to establish such a court proceeded from a desire to avoid a settlement by the sword. While, therefore, America is summoning the world to a peaceful contest at the Columbian Exposition, let the Government of the United States at the same time set on foot measures for the early establishment of a standing Court of Arbitration or the nations of the earth. The anniversary of the discovery of the New World could not be more fittingly celebrated than by the inauguration in 1892 of a Court of Peace at the instance of America.

D. A. R.

## STATE GOVERNMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Perhaps there is no man in the country whose words on the subject of municipal government carry more weight than those of Mr. Seth Low. My present object is not to add anything to his interesting article in the *Century*, but to use what may be called his major premise to enforce my own conclusions:

"Nothing is better settled in every State in the Union than that the Legislature of the State, unless it be limited by the State Constitution, has absolute and arbitrary control over a city's charter. The State may grant a charter or revoke it. The State may enlarge the powers granted to the city, or it may diminish them; it may assign duties under the city charter to officers elected by the people, or to officers named by the Governor, or designated by itself."

Is it not true that a great part of the difficulty of New York city government in the past has arisen from the tinkering of the charter by the Legislature at the instigation of intriguers? I will add a few words from Mr. James Bryce:

"An American may, through a long life, never be reminded of the Federal Government except when he votes at Presidential and Congressional elections, lodges a complaint against the post-office, and opens his trunks for a custom-house officer on the pier at New York when he returns from a tour in Europe. His direct taxes are paid to officials under State laws. The State, or a local authority constituted by State statutes, registers his birth, appoints his guardian, pays for his schooling, gives him a share in the estate of his father deceased, licenses him when he enters a trade (if it be one needing a license), marries him, divorces him, entertains civil actions against him, declares him a bankrupt, hangs him for murder. The police that guard his house, the local boards which look after the poor, control highways, impose water rates, manage schools—all these derive their legal powers from his State alone."

In other words, the State governments are

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by far the most important in the country. Yet who thinks or talks about the State governments except as regards the men and the party who are to possess and control them? Take the State Convention which met this week at Rochester. The name of Andrew D. White, having been talked of, was almost abjectly withdrawn because it did not suit Mr. Platt, and over a thousand men went to Rochester to register the decree (like the Parliament of Louis XIV.) of the said Platt that an individual named Fassett was to be the Republican candidate for Governor, while the people of the State, having no opportunity to vote for men of the stamp of Mr. White, are absolutely limited to a choice between the said Fassett and Mr. R. P. Flower, or some equivalent nominee of a Democratic Convention. It is difficult to read the platform without a burst of laughter. Why should the Republicans of New York State feel called upon to say that

"The cruelties and persecutions practised upon the Jews in Russia are abhorrent to the sense of justice of this people"?

It would have been more practical to print the Ten Commandments with full approval. Of the twenty-five clauses, thirteen consist of abstract declarations as to Federal affairs, although, except indirectly, as securing the supremacy of one of the two great parties, this election has nothing whatever to do with Federal affairs. The other twelve clauses consist of equally general declarations as to State affairs, which might have been much more briefly and forcibly put by saying, "Everything that the Democrats have done is bad. Everything that the Republicans have done is good."

Hear Mr. Low once more:

"A commission appointed by the Legislature is responsible to nobody but the Legislature. Neither the Governor nor the Mayor nor any other authority can call it to account, and therefore a State commission for any purpose other than inquiry is one of the most dangerous of bodies, for the reason that it exercises authority unchecked by responsibility."

I cannot speak as to New York, but I know that the whole executive government of Massachusetts is in the hands of eight or ten just such commissions, and that Gov. Russell in vain called the attention of the Legislature to the fact last winter. Again:

"This is one of the great reasons why heads of departments should not be elected; because officials who receive their authority from a direct vote of the people are inclined to feel entirely independent of one another, and to look upon the popular vote as to a certain extent an authority to do what they please."

This, which is an exceedingly mild way of putting it, is just as true of the State as of the city. The Governor, having no public influence with the Legislature, is further deprived by this cause of all control over administration, and it is this dislocation of the executive power which has led to the government of the State by commissions.

The great needs of State government are two: first, that which I have occasionally pointed out with reference to the Federal Government, the presence of the chief executive officers in the Legislature; and, second, the preliminary, without which the other can be of no avail, the full power of appointment by the Governor of his official staff or Cabinet.

Why is it that men of the type of Andrew D. White cannot go forward and ask for votes independent of the party managers? Because they cannot say to the people, "I ask you to give me a place of so many thousands a year, though you know, as well as I, that I can render no honest service in return." The Platts and Fassetts and Flowers have no such hesitation, but even they cannot do it openly, and so they resort to conventions—it would not be fair to say packed, but of which they can secretly pull the strings. But if such a man as Mr. White were to take in hand the reforms I have mentioned, go straight to the people and explain the need of them, and, backed by the thousands of independent supporters who are ready and waiting for a man of honest and earnest purpose, should ask the people for assistance in carrying them into effect, it does not require a very strong effort of imagination to suppose him capable of wrestling with and flooring the self-constituted managers of party.

G. B.

Boston, September 12, 1891.

## CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an old translation of the Marquis de Chastellux's 'Travels in North America' (New York, 1827) I find in a footnote, page 180, the following extract from a letter by Mr. Paine to the Abbé Raynal:

"Respecting *Canada*, one or the other of these two events will take place, viz.: if Canada should become populous it will revolt, and if it do not become so it will not be worth the expense of holding. But Canada *never will* become populous; Britain may put herself to great expense in sending out settlers to Canada, but the descendants of those settlers will be Americans as other descendants have been before them. They will look round and see the neighboring States sovereign and free, respected abroad, and trading at large with the world; and the natural love of liberty, the advantages of commerce, the blessings of independence and of a *happier climate and a richer soil* will draw them *southward*, and the effects will be Britain will sustain the expense and America reap the advantage; and the same may be said of *Halifax* and the country round it. One would think the experience Britain has had of America would entirely sicken her of all thoughts of *continental* colonization, and any part she may retain will only become to her a field of jealousy and thorns, of debate and contention, forever struggling for privileges and meditating revolt. She may form *new settlements*, but they will be for us; *they will become part of the United States of America;* and that against all her contrivances to prevent it, or without any endeavor of ours to promote it."

The italics are in the original. The great Thomas Paine seems to have foreseen the Canadian census returns so ably criticised in your issue of the 10th inst.—Yours truly, T. B. B.

Newburgh, N. Y., September 12, 1891.

## "ESCAPE."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Dr. Murray and your reviewer have both overlooked an interesting use of *escape* in a collective sense, as a group or multitude of escaping creatures, after the analogy of "a flight of arrows." It occurs in 'Sordello' (p. 38, ed. 1840):

"——songs go up exulting, then dispread,
Dispart, disperse, lingering overhead
Like an escape of angels."

I am, sir, etc.,
Wm. Hand Browne.

# Notes.

J. B. Lippincott Co. will publish directly 'Harmony of Ancient History, and Chronology of the Egyptians and Jews,' by Malcolm Macdonald; and 'The Natural History of Man, and The Rise and Progress of Philosophy,' lectures by Alexander Kinmont.

D. Appleton & Co. have nearly ready 'We All,' a tale of adventure in Arkansas, by Octave Thanet; and 'A History of Modern Civilization,' based on Gustav Ducoudray's.

M. L. Holbrook & Co., New York, have in press a translation from the German by Miss Jessica Gilbert Tyler, of Dr. Ewald Flügel's 'Moral and Religious Development of Thomas Carlyle,' with a new portrait.

A new and enlarged edition of Miss E. E. Brown's 'Life of James Russell Lowell' will be immediately brought out by D. Lothrop Co., Boston.

The sixth and concluding volume of the 'Century Dictionary' is now about to appear. The work has been extended by 500 pages and 2,000 illustrations beyond the original promise to subscribers.

Prof. Martin Hertz of Breslau is just entering upon an enormous task in Latin philology. It is his purpose to undertake for the Latin tongue the service which Dr. Murray and Mr. Bradley, together with their collaborators, are performing for our own. The historical method of the 'New English Dictionary' will be followed by him. Every Latin word will be traced from its origin down to Low Latin times, and each variation in its meaning will be noted. It is reckoned that the work will run to ten volumes of large quarto size and of about 1,200 pages each, and that its preparation will take eighteen or twenty years. Fifty scholars will collect notes and quotations which will be edited by ten of the best German Latinists. The cost of the undertaking is estimated at from half a million to a million marks, and will be assumed by the Prussian Government.

Prof. Weismann's 'Essays upon Heredity and Kindred Biological Problems' have made their mark, and a new edition of the authorized English translation has just been begun (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan). Volume i. is before us, and contains all of the previous edition, with a few verbal alterations and corrections. A second volume will shortly appear, comprising four additional essays—one upon the Musical Sense. Having already reviewed the essays in volume i., we await the publication of its fellow for further comment.

'Die Lügen unserer Socialdemokratie, nach amtlichen Quellen enthüllt und widerlegt von Hans Blum,' is announced by Hinstorff in Wismar. The name of the author (a distinguished member of the German Diet) is a sufficient guarantee that the exposure and refutation will be vigorous and thorough, if not wholly *sine ira et studio*.

'Madame de Warens et le Pays de Vaud, par Albert de Montet' (Lausanne: Bridal) is a new contribution to the already voluminous Rousseau literature. It is a reprint from *Mémoires et Documents de la Suisse Romande*, and possesses little more than a local interest. The author states that the lady's name was Vuarens.

M. Firmin Didot has just published 'Mithridate Eupator, Roi de Pont,' by Théodore Reinach. M. Théodore Reinach is the youngest of three well-known brothers, of whom Joseph, the eldest, has made his mark in the political world as a publicist and deputy, and Salomon, the second, is the distinguished archæologist. Théodore, after winning much academic distinction, and trying his wings in various directions in literature, appears to have settled down to steady historical work, for which he has already displayed a very considerable talent.

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The exact date of the birth of La Condamine, the illustrious French savant of the eighteenth century, has hitherto been unknown. The discovery of it is due to M. Mage, who has just announced to the Académie des Sciences that he has found the record of La Condamine's baptism in the register of a little church in the outskirts of Moulins. The date of his birth is therein given as January 27, 1701.

The 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual' for 1891 (New York: *Publishers' Weekly*) again marks an advance in bulk on its predecessor. Publishers' lists will grow, and more of them tend each year to be represented in this great collection. The *width* of the present volume still falls below that of the huge British 'Reference Catalogue of Current Literature' by about one-third, but its height is greater, and it would not be easy to compare the total contents of the two. In the 'Trade-List Annual,' of course, many English lists are included, by reason of branch houses in this country.

'Geometry of Position' is the title of a small octavo volume of 192 pages by Robert H. Graham (Macmillan). Strictly construed, the title denotes a branch of geometry in which the relations of forms in space are considered only in so far as they depend upon position, exclusive of all ideas of quantity or magnitude and all metrical relations. But the absolute separation of the geometry of position and the geometry of magnitude is impracticable if not impossible, and hence various other names have been proposed. Prof. Cremona of the University of Rome, for reasons which seem to us sufficient, preferred the title 'Projective Geometry,' and applied it to his work on the subject already noticed in these columns. The name 'Perspective Geometry' would also not be inappropriate, for projection and perspective are the two fundamental notions of the subject. It appears from Mr. Graham's preface that he was obliged to pursue the study originally under circumstances which made it necessary to work out large portions of it himself. This gives to his book a coloring of originality which we have no doubt will be interesting to those who are already acquainted with the subject; but for a beginner, and especially one who attempts to master the subject without a teacher, we think the book far less suitable than Cremona's treatise.

The Professor of Mathematics at Princeton, Mr. H. B. Fine, is the author of 'The Number System of Algebra' (Leach, Shewell & Sanborn), a small octavo embracing a range and variety of topics the adequate discussion of which would require a library rather than a volume which in size is little more than a pamphlet. The references in the preface, text, and notes show that the book is the result of very extensive reading; of how much thought, the writer alone can tell. It is divided into two parts, the "Theoretical" and "Historical." The first is an attempt to explain and reduce into a consistent system those fundamental concepts and processes which form the basis of the whole superstructure of mathematical science. The nature and properties of numbers, integral and fractional, positive and negative, rational and irrational, real and imaginary, or (by a broader generalization intended by the author to embrace all these classes) natural and artificial, are discussed, and the conclusions at which the author has arrived are stated and explained. Intermingled, as must necessarily be the case, with this discussion of the nature and properties of the various kinds of numbers is a discussion of the fundamental operations to which they are subjected—addition and subtraction, multiplication and division, involution and evolution, series, and many other things for which we must refer to the book itself. The work is written from both a mathematical and a philosophical point of view, but the mathematical decidedly predominates. The second part of Prof. Fine's book is an attempt to condense into 53 pages a sketch of the history of the development of mathematical ideas and processes from the first attempts at some systematic method of counting and notation up to the 'Quaternions' of Hamilton and the 'Ausdehnungslehre' of Grassmann. Perhaps all that can rightfully be demanded of such an attempt is that it should contain no erroneous statements, should be interesting, and should stimulate to further inquiry. We think Prof. Fine's sketch answers these requirements. The book is perhaps the most striking of the recent indications that American mathematicians are beginning to look at their science from a more philosophical point of view, and to feel some curiosity as to the history of the development of those processes which they have hitherto regarded merely as useful methods of arriving at certain desired results. We recommend its perusal to all mathematicians who consider their science as something more than a mere tool, and especially to all who are or intend to become teachers of mathematics.

Any one who is interested in the psychological puzzle afforded by the career of the late Laurence Oliphant, and is at the same time able to procure a copy of the *Sonoma Democrat* of August 22, published at Santa Rosa, Cal., will, on reading the first page, conclude that the puzzle is greater than ever. The editor introduces with a great flourish his distinguished townsman, Thomas Lake Harris, who has "resided in our midst for the last seventeen years." Three portraits of Harris at different periods, and a view of "Fountaingrove," his present residence, "one of the finest in structure, finish, and appurtenances in the State," with a "grand library," and with "magnificent paintings adorning the walls," are given. The article is succeeded by a long, windy, and unintelligible farrago on the "Brotherhood of the New Life," by Harris himself, who scouts the personal imputations of the Oliphant biography, and reviles a blackmailing press. He has not only got past asceticism, but has, for himself, "overcome the universal racial tendency to physical deterioration and disease." The whole production makes one marvel that a person of the smallest intellectuality could ever be subjected to such a high-priest.

In the current Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society, Senator Hoar has a paper comparing the Governments of Canada and the United States, in which he argues against the adoption in this country of "the change in the Executive with the changing majority of the House"—a step recommended by no man or party, so far as we know. There is also a very readable biographical sketch of the late George Bancroft, by Mr. Samuel Swett Green. It abounds in interesting anecdotes and intimate side-lights.

The third of the interesting and valuable series of papers on Britannic Confederation, now being published in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine*, is on the "Commerce of the British Empire." The author, Mr. G. G. Chisholm, starts with the assertion that a natural and essential accompaniment of the idea of political confederation is a Customs Union, without, however, giving any opinion as to its practicability. He then proceeds to show in detail the commercial relations of Great Britain with each of its principal colonies and India. Canada, he finds, within the past few years has done a greater export and import trade with the United States than with the mother country, and there seems no reason why this increase should not continue indefinitely. In like manner, though the bulk of the external trade of Australia and New Zealand is still with Great Britain, yet this trade is declining and foreign trade is growing, especially that with Germany, the value of the wool directly exported to Continental ports having increased from £172,000 in 1881 to £1,557,000 in 1888. In India, four-fifths of the total imports are from Great Britain. The exports to that country are, however, declining, and those to other countries are rapidly increasing. Here again Germany shows her activity, the value of her imports of Indian products having grown from £300,000 in 1886 to about £2,000,000 in 1890. There is also an immense increase in the amount of cotton yarn sent from India to China and Japan, namely, from less than 8,000,000 pounds in 1877 to over 162,000,000 in the year ending March 31, 1891. The recent opening of new countries in South Africa makes it impossible to draw any conclusions as to the normal commercial relations of these colonies with the mother country. The general drift of the paper, which is illustrated by three diagrams, is to the effect that the commercial ties between Great Britain and her colonies are gradually loosening and weakening.

In the *Alpine Journal* for August (Longmans), there is a paper on mountaineering in Southern Colorado, by Percy W. Thomas, after the reading of which Mr. James Bryce related his personal experiences, comparing the delightful effects of the scenery in that State with those of the East, where a similar clearness of atmosphere prevails. A paper by Walter Leaf, on "Climbing with a Hand Camera," is remarkable for some very striking instantaneous views of unconscious climbers in very ticklish situations; and, indeed, the writer's purpose is to direct attention to the possibilities of this line of "snap-shots."

A new monthly medical journal makes its appearance, its scope being fairly well indicated by its name—the *Climatologist* (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders). There would seem to be an advantage in such a clearing-house for the setting off the claims of rival localities against each other. Bethlehem, N. H., Southern California, and Colorado send in their drafts in this first number, which contains also a well-considered article by Dr. A. L. Loomis on the use of tuberculin.

On August 28 steps were taken, at a meeting held at the Columbian University, Washington, to form a National Association of Government Geologists for the determination of the proper objects of public geologic work, the improvement and unification of methods, the mutual adjustment of national and State surveys, coöperation to prevent duplication, etc. A committee of six on organization was appointed, Mr. Arthur Winslow, State Geologist of Missouri, being the Secretary.

The attempt to revive the Oriental Translation Fund has failed, but the Council of the Royal Asiatic Society will lend its support to a new series of publications, beginning with a full and complete translation of the first two parts of Mirkhond's 'Rauzat-us-Safa,' or 'Garden of Purity,' which contains the Moslem version of our Bible stories from the creation of genii before Adam to the death of Aaron. Subscribers (for a limited edition) should address F. F. Arbuthnot, 18 Park Lane, London, W.

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—Any one who turns the pages of the twelfth volume of Dr. John S. Billings's 'Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A.,' may judge for himself, by the comparative absence of long subject-titles, that author-titles are more than commonly numerous. These amount, in fact, to upwards of 20,000, or nearly 5,000 more than were recorded in the next fullest volume (v.); and it appears that so many pamphlets by about 5,000 have not heretofore been recorded. On the other hand, the journal articles entered are the fewest yet, by the same figures. Rheumatism is the ill that musters here the greatest literature, filling 46 pages. That enemy of the generation which antedates the forties, Scrofula, might have pushed Rheumatism hard; but there has been a partition which almost gives us a *Finis Scrofulæ*, and we are bidden to see Baths, Bones, Bubo, Cornea, Conjunctivis, Eye, Glands, Joints, Marriage, Neck, Phthisis, Skin, and even Venice. Still, Scrofula claims 14 pages. Scarlatina, together with a list of epidemics arranged by localities, demands 40 pages; Respiration, 19; the Retina and the Shoulder, 18 each. Sewage obtains 38 pages, Seasickness but 2, as against the 12 allotted to Serpents, to say nothing of what is given to Scorpions and Salamanders. Among the authors, the Schmidts (the Smiths are yet to come), the Schulzes, and the Schwarzes make a brave showing. A small percentage of titles have no appropriate place in this collection, like J. Rothen's 'Liederkranz' of the names of Jehovah. Others, quite appropriate, are somewhat unexpected, like Rousseau's Letters on Botany, along with writings concerning his alleged suicide and his chronic ailment, his sanity, etc. Schiller, on the other hand, enters in by virtue of his Inquiry into the Connection between Man's Brute and Spiritual Natures; and also we meet with a discussion of his skull and death-mask.

—A reading of this index for the queer, obsolete, unique, or merely technical words in the older English titles (which are very fully quoted) would be a service to Dr. Murray and his Dictionary, and the reader would find his or her reward in amusement, especially if able to enjoy the foreign titles also. Not a few are here that relate to the plague, and how to fortify one's self against it—"durch Hülffe Gottes und gute Ordnung." Other works are upon general hygiene, *e. g.*, the 'Regimen Sanitatis' of 1508, with its maxim for Nurembergers and the rest of mankind: "Vestibus indutis bene dentes osque lavabis, si vis esse sanus; tunc ablue sæpe manus," which leaves unwashed the clothed parts of the body. How far the dark ages reach down into the present is evidenced by "Sensus Communis" in his tractate, 'The Cholera, no Judgment! 'The efficacy, philosophy, and practical tendency of the prayer by the Archbishop of Canterbury, ordered to be used during the prevalence of cholera, examined in a letter addressed to the Right Hon. the Earl of Carlisle' (London, 1849). The anti-vaccinationists of our day may go back to William Rowley, author in 1805 of 'Cow-pox inoculation no security against small-pox infection; to which are added the modes of treating the beastly new diseases produced from cow-pox,' etc. Perhaps it would not be hard to match in current publications some of the astrological medical works here recorded in more than one language. For an example, Richard Sanders's 'The Astrological Judgment and Practice of Physick, deduced from the position of the heavens at the decumbiture of the sick person' (London: 1681) will suffice. A century later we meet with N. Robinson's 'Treatise on the virtues and efficacy of a crust of bread eat early in the morning fasting, to which are added some particular remarks concerning the great cures accomplished by the saliva or fasting spittle, etc.' One of the most curious sections, and not brief, is Sacred Embryology—in an Italian definition, "embriologia sacra," or the duty of priests, physicians, and superiors in the matter of the eternal welfare of the fœtus; in a French definition, "accouchement et embryologie selon les théologiens." Questions which troubled the theologic mind only two centuries ago in Europe were, as we gather from Boudewyns' 'Ventilabrum Medicum-Theologicum' (Antwerp, 1666), such as this: "An satyri, pigmæi, centauri, hermaphroditæ . . . baptizari debeant?"

—It would be difficult to light upon two books upon the same subject—Travels in Ireland—so widely different in their character and composition as two published this year (both about the same size and price, and bound in the national color), which lie before us, viz., Pococke's 'Tour in Ireland in 1752' (London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co.), and Mrs. Walter's translation of Mme. de Bovet's 'Three Months' Tour in Ireland [in 1890]' (Charles Scribner's Sons). Pococke was a grave churchman who tasted to the full the sweets of ecclesiastical preferment and died Bishop of Meath, but who spent more time in journeying than in the cure of souls. His volumes of travel in the East are of importance even at the present day. He discovered Chamounix. The book cited above, lately found in MS. in the Library of Trinity College, Dublin, has been ably edited by Prof. Stokes. Mme. de Bovet is a lively Frenchwoman. The one treats of Ireland lying as it were in a death trance—mainly of ruins and of the noblemen and gentry to whom the country had been given over. The institutions that claimed Pococke's chief interest were the charter schools, through which it was expected that the Irish would be rescued from Popery. The masses of the people were nowhere. It is only regarding the old Anglo-Norman colony in the Barony of Forth that we have any sympathetic writing. Mme. de Bovet treats of the Ireland of to-day seething with life; the people themselves, their hopes and fears, their shortcomings and their virtues, the chief interest, even above the glorious scenery she so well describes. Pococke is cold, dry, exact. His book will always be of value as a record of Ireland in the past. Mme. de Bovet is graphic and interesting; her narrative abounds in minor errors. Pococke gives us no real conception of what Ireland was in 1752. When the reader has forgotten Mme. de Bovet's facts, and when her exaggerations on one side and the other are toned down in his mind, he will have a very fair general idea of what Ireland is in the present. How much more valuable the one would be as a record if it had been illustrated as is the other! In both the thoughtful reader cannot but find much to repay him.

—The authorities of the British Museum, unlike not a few Continental institutions, have of late shown most commendable enterprise in giving to the world, without prolonged delays and in forms accessible to the majority of scholars, the ancient literary treasures recently acquired by the Museum. The 'Constitution of Athens,' published in January last, is now followed by 'Classical Texts from Papyri in the British Museum,' edited by Mr. Kenyon, with the aid, at different points, of Dr. Rutherford, Dr. Sandys, the Rev. E. L. Hicks, and Prof. Jebb. This thin volume contains the texts, or collations of texts, with nine autotype facsimiles, of all the papyrus manuscripts of literary works in Greek owned by the Museum, with the exception of those already published. Here are the texts of three classical works that have hitherto been unknown, and collations of seven manuscripts of works already extant. The latter include portions of the 'Iliad,' the third of the epistles ascribed to Demosthenes, and nearly the whole of the oration of Isocrates On the Peace; and the manuscripts collated are of course more ancient, in some cases by eight or ten centuries, than those hitherto available. It is gratifying to discover that in all important respects the vellum manuscripts of the Middle Ages yield a text at once purer and more original than that of these ancient Egyptian papyrus copies. But by far the most interesting parts of the volume are those containing the texts now first recovered. These texts comprise, first, seven poems of about one hundred lines each, in part complete, of the iambographer Herodas (or Herondas), a poet hitherto little more than a name; second, a fragment of a spirited speech that may safely be ascribed to Hypereides, and, third, a small fragment of a grammatical treatise bearing the name of Tryphon. The poems or mimes of Herondas—who lived probably about 200 B. C., perhaps at Cos—introduce us to a new branch of Greek literature; they are in dialogue form, and were probably intended for representation; they are not unlike some of the idyls of Theocritus, though much inferior in poetic character. Colloquial in style, bright and sprightly, but without the pungency of satire, abounding in proverbs, many of which are new, they afford rare glimpses into domestic manners and customs. The subjects of these poems are: "The Matchmaker," "The Pandar," "The Schoolmaster," "A Visit to Asclepius," "A Jealous Woman," "Friends in Council," and "The Shoemaker." The student of Greek life, the archæologist, and the grammarian alike will find the works of Herondas of great interest. Mr. Kenyon has given, in this *editio princeps*, only a faithful transcript of the readings of the papyrus; for a critical text of this new poet one must look to Dr. Rutherford, whose recension has just appeared.

—If the visitor to Bayreuth questions the artistic perfection of the Wagner performances, there can be no doubt as to their present commercial and fashionable value. The month's festival just over has been the most profitable on record. From barely paying expenses, the famous theatre, according to report, now makes a more than fair profit. In England alone, where scarcely 1,500 tickets were sold a couple of years ago, about 3,000 have been easily disposed of this summer. Those who waited to secure seats until the last moment were at times obliged to give ten, and twelve, and fifteen dollars for a single one, to speculating hotel porters and waiters. Fashion, too, has set its seal of approval upon Wagnerism. Princesses have been to the little Bavarian town on their wedding journey. Piccadilly and Fifth Avenue have emptied themselves into the long drive which leads up the hill to the Opera-house. But, on the other hand, there is disaffection in the inner Wagner camp. The Wagner societies of Europe, suddenly waking up to the fact that their Bayreuth is being fast monopolized by the world of fashion, have protested against the wholly commercial manner in which the

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theatre is now being run. It was not for this, not to establish the greatest musical show on earth, that they contributed to the enterprise and carried it through despite the then indifference of the general public. Frau Wagner, however, does not seem to sympathize with them, and so far they have protested in vain. That they are not without reason from an artistic standpoint has been recognized by English and Continental papers of note, such as the London *Times*, the Vienna *Freie Presse*, and the Paris *Figaro*, which have not been slow to point out weaknesses in the Bayreuth performances to which the Wagner worshipper remains fashionably blind.

—We very much regret to record the death at Schenectady, on the 12th inst., of the Rev. Robert Traill Spence Lowell, elder brother of the late James Russell Lowell, whom he survived exactly one month. He was born in Boston October 8, 1816, and diverged from the Unitarian line of his family to become, after graduation from Harvard and after having acquired a medical education, a clergyman of the Episcopal Church. His most celebrated and important charge was in the island of Newfoundland in 1846–'47, out of which grew his novel, 'The New Priest of Conception Bay.' This work had a striking success, bearing, as it did, the mark of a highly cultivated and original mind. Issued in 1858, it was reissued, with illustrations by Darley, in 1863, and on June 12, 1889, Mr. Lowell wrote to us from Schenectady: "Just at this moment I am full of the going-over of a revision for the Publishers; having just got through, for them, with night-and-day work on 'The New Priest'; which they have determined to bring out, again, without waiting for a new novel that they have long been asking from the author." Mr. Lowell was a poet, too, as the volume, 'Fresh Hearts that Failed Three Thousand Years Ago' (1860), testifies. From 1869 to 1873 he was head-master of St. Mark's School at Southborough, Mass., and left a deep and kindly impression on his pupils. His next post of usefulness was as Professor of Latin at Union College. He became in 1883 a contributor to the *Nation*, and enriched its columns with genial, scholarly reviews, written in a style of peculiar raciness that could not fail to attract attention. Some of these related to Newfoundland. On the 30th of last July he wrote to us, for the last time, in these words:

"I have, still lying here, a half-note written to you long ago, explaining my laches. For a year and a half, I have had the grippe, which, in the course of its residence, has been visited, for longer or shorter, by friends and kindred; as, twice by sharp spurious pleurisy, and by winter cholera, with two backcomings.—I am a very sick and weak man, now; unable to sit at a desk, and unable to sit much, at any rate. On the whole, there seems an intermittent gain. For the present, therefore, best wishes only, and always, to the *Nation* and you."

—A Tartarin of real life has lately died in Paris in the person of a M. Gros, dictator *in partibus* of the Republic of Counani. This republic is situated in the disputed country that lies between French Guiana and Brazil. A French adventurer, passing through it, had some conferences with the chiefs of the native roving tribes that are its only inhabitants, and was constituted, or constituted himself, their minister plenipotentiary to the rest of the world. M. Gros, all this while, was living peacefully at Vanves, writing school geographies and acting as municipal councillor, ignorant of his high destiny. To him came one morning the adventurer, offering him the suzerainty of Counani. He appears to have accepted it in the most perfect good faith. He appointed a First Minister, a Consul-General, an official newspaper, and set up his national bureaus in the Rue du Louvre at Paris. He founded an order of knighthood and distributed its crosses—some for love and some, it is said, for money. This would, indeed, appear to be the only source of revenue that Counani afforded. At last disturbance broke out between him and his Consul-General, and they mutually deposed each other. Of course, all this has added sensibly to the gayety of ruder Paris for the last few years, and the laughers made up a fund ostensibly to send M. Gros out to Counani to settle the affairs of his realm. He was taken no further than London, however, and returned to Paris to die, still full of unabated hope and confidence in his great future as a monarch.

—'Di alcuni Misuratori del Movimento Economico in Italia' (Roma: Salviucci, 1891) is a quarto volume of one hundred and six pages, in which Signor Bodio gives an admirable condensation and tabulation of the statistics contained in the voluminous publications issued from time to time by the different departments of the Italian Government. This work has a much larger scope than its title indicates, since it is not confined to "the economical movement in Italy," but embraces all the forces and factors which enter into the moral, intellectual, social, industrial, and national life of the Italian people and constitute the essential elements of contemporary Italian civilization. The author brings out in a clear and compendious manner the causal connection between the various influences and impulses, such, for example, as the effect of the diffusion of popular education in decreasing the death-rate, in diminishing crime, in increasing the material comfort of the working-classes and fostering an intelligent spirit of enterprise and thrift, which may ultimately result in the general substitution of savings-banks for investments in lottery-tickets. Of the recruits for the army in 1866, 36 per cent., and in 1888, 57 per cent., were able to read and write, and this progress in elementary instruction may be taken as a fair measure of the general progress of the nation. In Belgium 86, in France 90, in Germany over 98, and in Scandinavia over 99 per cent. of recruits can read and write, so that in this respect Italy still lags far behind the other nations of Western Europe (except Spain), although somewhat in advance of Russia and Servia. In some parts of Southern Italy (in Cosenza, for example) only 16 per cent. of the persons who enter the bonds of matrimony are able to sign their names. A work of a similar and equally scientific character is Dr. Victor Böhmert's *Verwaltungsbericht*, or official report as director of the Royal Statistical Bureau of Saxony, printed in the *Zeitschrift des Königl. Sächsischen Statistischen Bureaus* (1890; Heft i and ii), and covering the period from 1875 to 1889. Dr. Böhmert gives an interesting description of the organization and functions of this department of the public service, the value of which to the statesman, the political economist, and the historian as well as to the agricultural, commercial, and industrial classes can hardly be overestimated.

## RECENT LAW BOOKS.

*Company Law:* Commentaries on the Law of Private Corporations, whether with or without Capital Stock, also of Joint-Stock Companies, etc. By Charles Fisk Beach, jr. 2 vols. Chicago: T. H. Flood & Co. 1891.

*Constitutional Legislation in the United States:* Its Origin and Application to the Relative Powers of Congress and of State Legislatures. By John Ordronaux, LL.D. Philadelphia: T. & J. W. Johnson & Co. 1891.

*A Treatise on the Law of Negotiable Instruments*, including Bills of Exchange, Promissory Notes, Negotiable Bonds and Coupons, etc., etc. By John W. Daniel. 2 vols. 4th ed. Baker, Voorhis & Co. 1891.

*Vested Rights:* Selected Cases and Notes on Retrospective and Arbitrary Legislation Affecting Vested Rights of Property. By William G. Myer. St. Louis: The Gilbert Book Company. 1891.

*The Law of Life Insurance*, including Accident Insurance and Insurance by Mutual Benefit Societies. By Frederick H. Cooke. Baker, Voorhis & Co. 1891.

*A Treatise on the Law relating to the Custody of Infants*, including Practice and Forms. By Lewis Hochheimer. 2d ed. 1891.

*Wills and Intestate Succession:* A Manual of Practical Law. By James Williams. London: Adam & Charles Black. 1891.

A CORPORATION, according to Chief-Justice Marshall's well-known and often-quoted definition, is "an artificial being, invisible, intangible, and existing only in contemplation of law." Kyd's elaborate description is—

"a collection of many individuals united into one body, under a special denomination, having perpetual succession under an artificial form, and vested by the policy of the law with the capacity of acting in several respects as an individual, particularly of taking and granting property, of contracting obligations, and of suing and being sued, of enjoying privileges and immunities in common, and of exercising a variety of political rights, more or less extensive, according to the design of its institution, or the powers conferred upon it, either at the time of its creation, or any subsequent period of its existence."

Blackstone, as if foreseeing the difficulties into which any attempt at definition might lead him, resorted to similes, likening a corporation at first to a "little republic," and afterwards (having in view its continuous existence) to a river—"as the river Thames is still the same river, though the parts which compose it are changing every instant."

In our time almost every accepted legal conception comes up for reëxamination, and every definition is submitted to a new analysis. Hence it is not surprising to find that few modern judges or text writers are satisfied with the notion of a corporation as an artificial person. Mr. Morawetz, in his admirable treatise, has devoted a great deal of learning and ingenuity to showing that the existence of a corporation independently of its shareholders is a fiction, and that the rights and duties of an incorporated association are in reality the rights and duties of the persons who compose it, and not of an imaginary being. Mr. Beach, imbued with the common professional dislike of any extreme systematic view, is of opinion that "the truth would seem to lie between" the old technical view and the modern theory. If we may venture a suggestion, it would be that Mr. Beach does not very clearly apprehend the scope of the conception which he criticises. Nor is this a barren or academical question. If we turn to one of the latest and most thoroughly argued corporation cases—that relating to the Sugar Trust—we find that one of the grounds of defence to the action for the dissolution of the North River Sugar Refining Company was, that, the trustees and directors not having acted, there had been no corporate

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action. The *corporation* had done nothing for which it could be punished; but the Court of Appeals, declaring that what the whole body of corporators had done (*i. e.*, in divesting themselves of their corporate powers and putting them in trust) the corporation had itself done, went so far as to say that "the abstract idea of a corporation, the legal entity, the impalpable and intangible creation of human thought, is itself a fiction, and has been appropriately described as a figure of speech." This seems to us to err on the side of extravagance of expression, for a legal fiction which has well-defined legal consequences is certainly not a figure of speech.

The whole matter has been fully explained by Mr. Morawetz, as has also the difficult subject of *ultra vires*. It is impossible to avoid comparing the two books, dealing as they do with the same subject, in the light of the most recent decisions. Mr. Beach's collection of cases is the latest, and every late collection of cases is of value to the lawyer. It is really no disparagement to him, but rather complimentary, to compare him with a writer so original and so acute as Mr. Morawetz. As we have hinted, he has not the latter's faculty of analysis, but his collection of cases seems full, and his treatise is an important addition to the half-dozen or so leading modern works which cover the same field.

Prof. Ordronaux describes his work as an "attempt to present, in a concrete form, the entire system of Federal and State legislation as practised under a written constitution in the United States." Its object is also "to expound those administrative powers which, in our dual form of representative government, are sovereign within their several spheres of action." The treatise discusses many of the subjects found in books on the Constitution and in books on hermeneutics, such as the sources, organization, and development of representative government in the United States, constitutional guarantees, impeachment, the "mechanics of legislation," and the meaning of words and phrases. It seems intended for students rather than for practising lawyers, but for use in schools or colleges it is open to the charge of a want of clearness. We cannot suppose, for instance, that Prof. Ordronaux imagines that the act of an American court in treating a law in contravention of the Constitution as null and void has anything to do with "judicial legislation." Indeed, he very justly says, "If a legislative act be made in contravention of the Constitution, it is manifestly no law," and judges cannot be said to legislate when they refuse to follow an enactment which is not law. Why, then, puzzle the student by treating the two things together, in a chapter bearing the extraordinary title, "Judicial Legislation, including Impeachment"?

The chapter on "Words of Common Use" is valuable for its references to cases, but many of the definitions given seem to us beside the mark. "Charitable uses" our author declares to mean, "popularly," gifts for the relief of the poor; *in law*, "any gifts to public uses dependent solely upon the will of a donor." What is the force of "dependent solely upon the will of a donor"? Are not all gifts so dependent? "Benefit," we are told, "means such profit or use as constitutes a *legal consideration*." This would seem to identify the word in law with "consideration." Two cases are referred to, neither of which decides that the word means anything of the kind, and one of which explicitly follows Webster in declaring that "benefit" means "simply advantage, profit," *i. e.*, the word is not used in the case in question in any technical sense whatever. "Benefit" as a technical legal term means generally in the United States the advantage derived by a land-owner from the taking of his property under the right of eminent domain, and is used as the correlative or opposite of the word "damages." "From" and "with" are certainly words in common use, but we do not know that they have any different meaning in law from that which is attached to them in common parlance. The author insists, however, that when "used singly" they are "ambiguous," and suggests that other words should be coupled with them in order to define their intent more certainly, as "from and out of," "together with," etc. We deny altogether the ambiguity imputed to these innocent prepositions, and must maintain that the author's attempt to remove ambiguity from them is not only wholly unnecessary, but confusing. "From Dan to Beersheba" is not an ambiguous phrase. "With all my worldly goods I thee endow" is perfectly clear. The fact is, that the amplified prepositions mean something different from the others. The law has not attached any technical signification to them. These matters cannot be regarded as trivial in a work dealing largely with questions of interpretation.

Mr. Daniel's treatise on negotiable instruments has become a work of such established authority that it is hardly necessary to say more than that a new edition is very welcome. The last one appeared in 1882, and some two thousand new cases are now added, which, according to the preface, "are the result of new illustrations and diversities of established principles rather than of the evolution of new ones." The very remarkable success of this book is a striking proof (to make use of the apt quotation of the author) of what an abundance of new corn can be got out of the old fields of the law by good husbandry. When 'Daniel on Negotiable Instruments' first appeared, probably few lawyers imagined that a new text-book was needed on the subject. Yet it has already distanced all its competitors, and may fairly be said to be at present the standard work on the subject.

Mr. William G. Myer is favorably known to lawyers as the compiler of 'Myer's Federal Decisions,' a voluminous and exhaustive digest, the preparation of which has peculiarly qualified him for taking up any branch of law involving constitutional questions. His work on 'Vested Rights' comprises, according to the preface, "a selection of cases, annotated, on those fundamental and constitutional principles which have for their object the protection of vested rights of property." The annotations do not consist, however, of a gloss by the author, as in most collections of leading cases: they are a digest of decisions grouped under the principal case; and the whole book is consequently at once a collection of leading decisions and a digest. It deals chiefly with Retrospective Laws, the constitutional guarantee of "due process of law," and the provision prohibiting the impairment of the obligation of contracts. There are some fifty-odd leading decisions given in full, and some two thousand other cases briefly digested. There can be no doubt of the value of the work as a digest, but it can hardly take the place of a treatise. The method of arrangement is such as to bring together matters widely diverse in principle, merely because they fall under the same constitutional clause. Thus, Munn vs. Illinois is necessarily annotated together with Eames vs. Savage, because they are both leading cases under section 1 of the 14th Amendment, declaring that no State shall "deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law." But the considerations governing the decision in the two cases were quite different. In the first, the point involved was whether a State law prescribing a maximum rate of toll for warehousing grain was or was not an arbitrary invasion of a *property* right; in the second, whether a summary process for satisfying a judgment against a town by levy and execution upon the goods of any inhabitant was "due process of law." In the first, the discussion turned on the question whether the public had an interest in the property and occupation involved which authorized it to interfere with the price fixed for the service rendered; in the second, whether a particular kind of summary process was included in the constitutional conception of "due process." One was primarily a question of power, the other of interpretation. We cannot agree with the author in thinking that his method renders the result "more useful than if it had been put into the form of a treatise."

Life Insurance is a subject of entirely modern origin, and there is no great accumulation of works devoted to it. The last edition of Bliss's work appeared in 1874. The plan adopted in Mr. Cooke's volume has been that of reserving for the text the statement and exposition of general and fundamental principles, putting all exceptions to and limitations upon these rules into the notes. In this way the book is made very compact, for with apparently a larger number of cases, it does not reach half the size of Bliss's treatise. So far as we have been able to examine it, the work is creditably done. The subject is a difficult and perplexing one, the contract of insurance being governed in many respects by principles not applied in the cases of other contracts, and the effect of warranties and representations being often confusing. We notice one or two statements which seem to need reconsideration—for example, the proposition that "all that the law recognizes as of value to a person and as capable of injury are his *life* and his *property*." Even when the author has explained that in "life" he means to include "health," the statement is incorrect, because it leaves out both liberty and reputation, which are equally under the protection of the law. Again, "In *some cases* there has been asserted a distinction between a contract for insurance against injury to life and one against injury to property; the latter being declared a *contract of indemnity*, and the former a *mere contract to pay on condition*. The only significance of this distinction seems to lie in its bearing on the amount of recovery under the contract." There is no more fundamental distinction between fire and life insurance than that the one is a contract of indemnity, the other not. At page 236 are collected the cases showing the full effect of the distinction, *e. g.*, that an assignee recovers in full, without regard to the amount paid for the assignment; that a creditor is not limited to the amount of his debt; that a tenant insuring the life of his landlord recovers the full amount without reference to the value of his interest and regardless of the expiration of his tenancy. In the well-known case of the insurance of Mr. Pitt's life (the debts having been subsequently paid), it was held that there could be no recovery; but, as Mr. Cooke's researches sufficiently show, this is not good law now. Under these circumstances the reference to the matter above given is a little misleading. Upon the whole, Mr. Cooke has performed a difficult task with more than common success.

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It is seldom that a second edition of a law-book is smaller than the first, but this is the case with Mr. Hochheimer's revision of his work on the custody of infants. By condensation and excision, he has transformed a considerable octavo into a diminutive hand-book. He is fortunate in having, what is denied to many writers of law, a faculty of condensed statement, and his book in its new form will be found a convenient compendium.

Mr. Williams's hand-book is one of those attempts to state the law of a subject in a small compass which is open to two criticisms: for lawyers it does not give enough; for laymen it gives too much. As a guide to the student or instructor it has some good points, particularly its historical account of wills. For the full enjoyment of the legal feast which the subject may be made to yield—the delicacies furnished by the evolution of the distinction between latent and patent ambiguities, the succulent learning of the marshalling of assets and the wholesome nutriment of charitable uses—for these we must browse in the ampler pastures of Redfield and Jarman.

## SANBORN'S LIFE OF HOWE.

*Dr. S. G. Howe*, the Philanthropist. By F. B. Sanborn. Funk & Wagnalls. 1891.

As a piece of biographical writing, Mr. Sanborn's life of Dr. Howe is clearly an advance upon his lives of Thoreau and John Brown. For writing it Mr. Sanborn had truly admirable preparation. He shared the vicissitudes of Dr. Howe's political career; was his companion in various attempts to defeat the Fugitive Slave Law and in the preparations for the John Brown raid; at a later period was intimately associated with him as Secretary of the State Board of Charities, of which Dr. Howe was president for many years, an office in which Mr. Sanborn succeeded him, retaining it until the Massachusetts spoilsmen cast him out after the brutal manner of their kind. All of this preparation was unconscious; a conscious part was a visit which Mr. Sanborn made to Greece in 1890, when he went over much of the ground associated with Dr. Howe's adventures in 1824 and the five following years. But with all this wealth of general and special preparation, Mr. Sanborn's work has been subject to one serious limitation which has made the net result greatly inferior to what it might otherwise have been. The family of Dr. Howe are preparing a more extended biography, with many extracts from letters and journals which have not been available for Mr. Sanborn, except as he has found them here and there in print. But the life of Dr. Howe would appear to have been one particularly needing the illumination of letters and journals for its fit apprehension, and the little of it that we have makes it evident how much we miss in what remains behind.

Born in 1801, and graduating in 1821 from Brown University, where he abused a meagre opportunity, the medical studies on which he entered were disturbed by rumors of an uprising of the Greeks against the Turks, and, though he took his medical degree in 1824, he set sail for Greece the same year to join the insurgent forces. Byron, with whom popular tradition has associated him as a fellow-soldier, died in April of this year, some months before young Howe's arrival, but his name and fame were everywhere, and he was known only as "great and good." Great misfortune fell upon the Greeks soon after Howe's arrival; the regular warfare ceased, and he joined a guerrilla band, of which another member was the young Whitcombe who shot and nearly killed Byron's friend, Trelawny, in his cavern on Parnassus. Of this episode Mr. Sanborn gives a full account, which is justified by its intrinsic interest, if not by its connection with the main affair. The guerrilla life was rough and hard: "Months without eating other flesh than mountain snails or roasted wasps; weeks without bread, and days without a morsel of food of any kind." So Howe reported his own experience to Horace Mann, but in general only with difficulty could he be induced to talk about his personal adventures, and, though he wrote 'An Historical Sketch of the Greek Revolution,' his own part, so far as it appears, is carelessly slurred over or deliberately veiled. He visited America in 1828, and returned to Greece with a good supply of money, food, and clothing for the miserable victims of oppression. Later he organized a settlement at Corinth, and, when he returned there in 1844, was recognized and made the object of a popular ovation. Mr. Sanborn's account of Howe's Greek life is less continuous and more episodical than we could wish, and the defect, though partly owing to the scantiness of his material, hints at a certain lack of skill as a narrator in his equipment for his task. Howe, the mature man, disparaged the enthusiasm of his youth, setting down his Greek outing to "thoughtless indifference, perhaps ignorance of what courses would have been profitable for him. Lacking prudence and calculation, he followed an adventurous spirit."

There was a "preëstablished harmony" in his finding himself in Paris at the time of the Revolution of 1830 and joining the insurrectionists who accompanied Lafayette to the Hôtel de Ville, and also in his being made Chairman of the American-Polish Committee in 1832, and going to Prussian Poland to carry money for the Polish refugees. On his way back he was arrested and kept a secret prisoner in Berlin for several weeks, a fitting climax to his adventurous youth. Already he had entered on a path much less romantic than the one he had so far pursued, but not without greater wonders and surprises in its forward course for the discerning eye. He had come to Europe to study institutions for the blind, and, when freed from his imprisonment by Albert Brisbane's timely interposition, he returned to Boston and entered on the work which was the peculiar glory of his life. Hardly could anything have been more different from the striking circumstances of his earlier career than the slow and patient methods of that education which was practically to give sight to the blind and make the dumb to speak. Almost from the start, Dr. Howe improved upon the European methods. Mr. Sanborn tells the story mainly in Dr. Howe's own words, extracted from his annual reports. It attains its highest point of interest in what Mr. Sanborn's chapter-heading rightly calls "The Wondrous Story of Laura Bridgman." All its details are beautiful and impressive, but the child's discovery of her mother after their first separation is of a pathos not to be excelled. Dr. Howe's interest in the blind quickened his sympathies for every form of physical or mental limitation, and in 1847 his representations induced the State to appropriate $2,500 a year for three years for the alleviation of idiocy. The first ten idiot children were taken into his personal charge at the Blind Asylum in South Boston. Now 300 pupils are educated at a yearly expense of $50,000. Following his account of Dr. Howe's political and anti-slavery labors, Mr. Sanborn gives an account of his later labors for the teaching of articulation to the dumb, and the segregation or isolation of insane persons. Together with Horace Mann, he had advocated the teaching of articulation as early as 1844. There was a war of pamphlets, but victory crowned the standards of the conservative opposition. In 1866 the contest was renewed, the Clarke institution in Northampton was established, and now several thousand children are learning by the new method, which was a proved success in Europe fifty years ago.

Ninety pages of Mr. Sanborn's book (187-277) are devoted to the "Political Conflict," in which Dr. Howe took an active part from 1846 until slavery was destroyed. It must be confessed that these pages are much fuller on the general aspects of the conflict than on Dr. Howe's particular part in it. In one chapter Daniel Webster has an exclusive prominence, and the lack of pertinence is atoned for by the recovery of Webster's Address, written for the Anti-Texas Convention of January 29, 1845. Mr. Sanborn corrects Mr. Adams's statement in his Life of Dana—that the Address was Webster's only in part. He has had access to the manuscript, and says that it is partly in Webster's handwriting and all of his composition. The depth of Webster's fall in 1850 can best be measured by the difference between his 7th of March bid for the Presidency and the humane and spirit-stirring sentiments of this address. Mr. George T. Curtis's suppression of it, and the facts concerning it, in his Life of Webster, shows that he knew the teaching of the fable very well. It is a surprising circumstance that so active a philanthropist as Dr. Howe was so slow to wake up to the importance of the anti-slavery agitation. He gave it very little thought till 1846, when he went into politics as unsuccessful opposition candidate to Robert C. Winthrop in the Congressional election of that year. His engrossment in his special work may plead for arrest of judgment on his tardiness, but that a certain aristocratic temper, allying him with those who shut their doors on Sumner and Phillips, had something to do with it, Mr. Sanborn does not endeavor to conceal. A late recruit, Dr. Howe made large amends for his backwardness by his fidelity once he had joined the anti-slavery ranks. The sending back of fugitive slaves was intolerable to his ethical imagination, and he was one of the most active on the Committee to prevent that wickedness. But while Mr. Sanborn gives a somewhat elaborate account of slave-catching in Boston, he gives us no details of Dr. Howe's services to the poor creatures fearing things more terrible than death. His connection with John Brown was quite as intimate as that of Mr. Sanborn, Gerrit Smith, Theodore Parker, George L. Stearns, or T. W. Higginson; but though the account of this is fuller than of his connection with "the Underground Railroad," it is still insufficient. His action during the reign of terror that succeeded Harper's Ferry did not wholly meet with Mr. Sanborn's approval at the time, but he prints a letter which he then wrote to vindicate him, and it is a sufficient answer to a good deal of criticism that has been directed against the friends who furnished Brown with aid and comfort for his glorious foolishness.

That Dr. Howe had something of the Quixotism of his youth left in his ebbing veins is shown by his favorable regard for the San Domingo scheme which so excited the antagonism of his friend Sumner. Was it some vague suspicion of his resemblance to La Mancha's knight that made the story of his ad-

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ventures Dr. Howe's favorite reading during his stay in San Domingo? In a closing chapter, "Character and Results," Mr. Sanborn tells us that Dr. Howe was by no means a faultless character, and indicates some of his limitations: "He could be as capricious and as persistent as if caprice and persistence were not antagonistic qualities. He loved power, though he seldom sought it; and was often unjust to his opponents, of whom, first and last, he had a great many." But in the foregoing chapters there is but the slightest exhibition of these personal traits or of any others, good or bad, and we are left with only the most vague impression of a personality that was extremely rich and strong. Whatever its defects, he loved so much, and did so much for the blind, the prisoner, the deaf and dumb, the feeble-minded, and the oppressed of two continents, that one could easily forgive him much, and our obligation to Mr. Sanborn is great for bringing home to us his high example.

*New Light on Dark Africa.* By Dr. Carl Peters. Ward, Lock & Co.

THE title of this book is misleading, as it contains nothing new about Africa in general or any part of it, nor does it make clear anything which had previously been obscure. It is simply the record of a buccaneering expedition, which, though ostensibly for the relief of Emin Pasha and the extension of German influence, had no other real end than the gratification of a young adventurer's ambition and love of excitement. Dr. Peters had already been twice in Africa before the time of the expedition of which he gives an account in this volume, and had gained some notoriety for his zeal and success in acquiring territory for Germany. On this occasion he proceeded on principles entirely different from those of most other African travellers. They have invariably taken with them cloth, wire, and beads to purchase food, water, and the right of way, so far as possible, for their whole projected journey. Dr. Peters, on the other hand, carried little else than ammunition, intending to refuse all tribute or gifts, and to take what he needed as he went along. If resistance should be offered by the owners of the property appropriated, he would unhesitatingly shoot them down. It was an eminently successful method—from his point of view. He marched from the mouth of the Tana River to the Victoria Nyanza, with a small, well-armed force, spreading terror among the tribes and often leaving in his track murdered natives, burned villages, and people despoiled of their cattle, their principal means of living. So far from desiring or attempting to excuse these ruthless proceedings, he glories in them, often referring to Stanley's and Thomson's just and conciliatory treatment of the natives as servile and unworthy of Europeans. He is just as unscrupulous towards the English, opening their despatches, and, in one instance, if we are not mistaken, robbing the stores of an expedition whose leaders at the moment chanced to be absent.

From the Victoria he passed through Uganda, whose king, Mwanga, he claims to have restored to his throne, though in what way is not apparent from his narrative. Judging from his description of this notorious African, it would be difficult to believe in the cruelties justly laid to his charge. He confirms, however, the accounts received from other sources of the condition of the country. The villages were burned and the groves of bananas destroyed. "By the roadsides lay skeletons and corpses still in process of decomposition, poisoning the air. The carrion vultures, who were gorging themselves with the flesh of the unburied corpses, seemed to be the only inhabitants of this land. Every trace of human beings had vanished." Of the English missionaries in Uganda he has little that is favorable to say, but the French were much more to his liking. This is not surprising, if we may judge from the advice which one of the latter, Père Lourdel, gave him: "Vous ferez bien de brûler la capitale de Mtatemboa." From Uganda he returned to the coast, nearly all the way by the ordinary travelled route. At Mpwapwa he met Emin Pasha, who was on his way to the interior, and the two apparently spent their time agreeably in abusing Mr. Stanley. Zanzibar was reached in July, 1890, after an absence of thirteen months.

The literary ability of the author is small. His style is nearly always heavy, and the narrative, especially at the beginning, is so overburdened with petty personal details as to be excessively tedious. His descriptions are dull and lifeless and his humor is heavy. Very offensive, it should be said, are many of his pious allusions, considering the occasions which call them out. After planning by treachery to seize the herds of an unsuspecting tribe, he ordered his people "to get up a fence for the cattle that Heaven was going to send us." The description of the destruction of a native village after a sanguinary fight in which over a hundred natives had been slain, begins, "What time the Advent bells were calling to church in Germany, the flames were crackling over the great kraal on all sides, and mounting towards the heavens." The chief characteristics of this, to us, repulsive book are the strong personality of Dr. Peters, the exalted opinion he entertains of the importance of his abortive expedition, his intense hatred of the English, and the contempt which he showed for the negro's right to life and property. It is attractively got up; the pictures, with the exception of the portraits and possibly some of the landscapes, being apparently purely fanciful.

*The Saga Library.* Vol. I. By William Morris and Eiríkr Magnússon. London: Bernard Quaritch. 1891. 12mo, pp. 7+ 227.

*Lad and Lass*: A Story of Life in Iceland. Translated from the Icelandic of Jón Thordarson Thóroddsen by Arthur M. Reeves. London: S. Low, Marston, Searle & Rivington.

MR. BERNARD QUARITCH has reverted to an old-time interest of his in undertaking the publication of a "Saga Library," to consist of fifteen or more volumes, containing the leading Icelandic mythological and historical sagas. These are to be edited and translated by Mr. William Morris and Prof. Magnússon of the Cambridge University Library. Of the works selected for publication in the new form, all but the three narratives making up the first volume of the series have been put into English before, several of them by Mr. Morris himself. That there is room for a new edition cannot be doubted, and the editors, whose previous work in popularizing Icelandic literature has secured them a well-earned reputation for brilliant translation, should find a ready welcome for their new venture. Indeed, it is a matter for regret that a popular edition of these original and decidedly interesting works is limited to 1,000 copies, for thrice that number ought to find their way into private collections, while every public library in England and America should subscribe for the set. An introductory preface to the first volume of the series contains a sketch of Icelandic literature in general and considerable detailed information concerning the history of the three stories included in the book, but this cannot be recommended as especially interesting reading. The somewhat voluminous notes at the end of the volume, however, contain many interesting illustrations of Icelandic manners and customs.

The editors have done well in beginning their series with the three semi-historical sagas of "Howard the Halt," "The Banded Men," and "Hen Thorir," because they will be new to English readers, and are capital examples of a distinct type of Icelandic narrative. These stories have the robust quality of the air of the country that gave birth to their heroes. Their great dramatic power, combined with simplicity and directness of narration, has kept them fresh and virile through centuries. It must be admitted that their prevailing sentiment is an eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth, with usury; but the spiritual light by which these primitive people were guided was almost as scanty as the daylight of their long winters; and even a superficial reading will show that the vendetta that flourished so lustily was not a mere outgrowth of private passion, but a crude expression of the instinct of justice, and made obligatory by public opinion. Boldly drawn, and characterized by keen insight into human nature, these pictures, though of a rude age, are yet free from coarseness, and the translators have happily preserved enough of the original quaint phraseology to lend a peculiar charm to this English version. "Howard the Halt" possesses the liveliest dramatic interest. A man of former prowess, but now old and maimed—hence the title—loses by treachery and violence at the hands of Thorbiorn, a man of position but very unjust, his only and promising son. Weighed down with age and benumbed by grief, the poor old man is bedridden for three years, rousing at the end of each twelvemonth to seek redress, only to be met with brutal insult. His wife, Biargey, "the most stirring of women," keeps the fires of vengeance burning, and, having engaged the aid of her kinsfolk, rouses Howard with a final adjuration and a prophecy. "So when he heard her words he leapt up from his bed and forth on to the floor and sang:

> "'Once more amid my old age
> I ask for quiet hearing,
> Although the speech of song-craft
> Scarce in my heart abideth
> Since then when first I wotted
> Of weapon-god downfallen.
> O son, how surely wert thou
> The strength of all my welfare!'

And now was Howard as brisk as might be and halt no longer." The rejuvenated man and his kinsfolk perform the most prodigious feats of valor when they meet Thorbiorn and his powerful allies. We have an amusing revelation of the workings of the human mind when Howard, coming face to face with his enemy, is minded that a new faith—the Christian—has been put forth, and he vows that "if any could show him that that faith was better and fairer, then would he trow in it if he might overcome Thorbiorn." When there are no more enemies to slay, Howard fares to Norway and embraces Christianity, but on the death of Biargey he returns to Iceland, and, having carried "church wood" there, a church was built from it after his death and his grave made therein.

"The Banded Men" is a humorous satire on the administration of courts of law. Ufeig, a man full of good counsel but "unhandy at money-getting," prodigal of meat and meal, and borrowing to keep the household going,

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has a prudent son, who leaves home early on account of the lack of love between his father and himself. The son amasses much property, but the father remains as poor as before, and there is no intercourse between the two. It falls out after awhile that the son has a case in court, but, there being a flaw in the prosecution, he is obliged to withdraw. The father meets him on the way home and derisively assumes that he has won the suit. On being told the contrary, an agreement is made between them, and Ufeig assumes control. Here his native shrewdness and knowledge of human nature come into play, and the description of his manner of treating the corruptible court of justice is highly amusing. Ufeig wins not only the lawsuit, but a bride for his son, and "ever after endured the good will and kindly affection between the father and son."

A few bold strokes tell the story of "Hen Thorir," a huckster of low degree trafficking at one time in hens—whence his nickname. As a story it is not so readable as the two preceding, but as a sketch of sharply defined contrasts of character it is very effective.

In conjunction with the three Saga stories it is interesting to read a modern Icelandic novel. 'Lad and Lass,' by Jón Thóroddsen, considered the most important modern Icelandic tale, was written in 1848–'49, and published in Copenhagen a year later, a second edition being issued in 1867. It has been twice translated into Danish and once into German. An English version of one of the Danish translations appeared some years since. The present version is from the original Icelandic, by Mr. Arthur M. Reeves, in whose recent untimely death Icelandic literature lost an enthusiastic lover and intelligent interpreter. 'Lad and Lass' gives many evidences of true poetic feeling; and the figure of the heroine, Sigrid, is drawn with delicacy and faithfulness, while the other characters are clearly individualized. The plot is a familiar one to novel-readers, illustrating the old proverb on the course of true love; but, thanks to the same tenacity of purpose that so notably characterizes the heroes of the Sagas, Sigrid and her faithful lover eventually set at naught the machinations of their enemies. In point of dramatic force this story suffers by comparison with the older narratives. The dialogue is sometimes labored, and the pleasantry lacks the arrow-like lightness and swiftness of the old story-tellers. It would be unfair, however, to make too close a comparison with what was produced under far different conditions. The stirring life of the old Icelanders found dramatic narrative its most natural expression, while the comparative monotony and isolation of the present age give little scope for heroic action or expression.

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*Städte Pamphyliens und Pisidiens.* Unter Mitwirkung von G. Niemann und E. Petersen herausgegeben von Karl Grafen Lanckoronski. I. Band. Pamphylien. Vienna: F. Tempsky.

STRANGE to say, a country that has played a most important, a unique rôle in the history of the world and in the history of our own immediate civilization, Asia Minor, was virtually *terra incognita* until about ten years ago. But during the last decade the world has been awakening to its importance as a field for archæological exploration. In view of the centuries of lethargic neglect, this sudden awakening has been remarkable for the unexpected energy displayed, and in consequence the decade can chronicle most gratifying results in every branch of archæological investigation, thanks to a band of devoted workers. Among the chiefest of these must be reckoned Count Lanckoronski. Not that he has worked especially with his own brains, time, and energy, but with the brains, time, and energy of such distinguished scholars as Petersen and Niemann. None the less honor is due him on that account, none the less be his meed of praise, none the less be the gratitude we owe him for the unselfish enthusiasm for antiquity that has led him to fit out with generous, nay, even lavish hand, and send expedition after expedition to Lycia, Caria, Pamphylia, and Pisidia, in order to survey, measure, and publish the ruins of the chiefest cities of those countries. These expeditions have necessitated a great and long-continued outlay of money, and the editing and publication of their results in such magnificent style have cost perhaps as much as the expeditions themselves. And all this expense has been met by Count Lanckoronski. Such single-hearted and unselfish devotion to the science of antiquity is rare nowadays among men of wealth, and it is worthy of grateful remembrance and mention at the hands of all classical students, who, we feel sure, will devoutly wish for many successors and imitators of Count Lanckoronski.

The magnificent volume on Pamphylia to which this notice would call attention is a worthy sequel to the two imperial volumes ('Reisen in Lykien und Karien') that were presented to the public several years ago. The printer has spared no pains on it, and, so far as paper, typography, and illustrations are concerned, the book is simply faultless. Indeed, we have but one fault to find with this as with the former volumes. It is too sumptuous and too costly to have a wide circulation, for, as a class, scholars are not in condition to present themselves with *éditions de luxe*, even in their own individual specialty. The circulation of the book must therefore be limited to public libraries and to men of means. And yet science would have been distinctly the loser had the book been made a cheap one; for books whose value lies in great measure in the illustrations cannot be made cheap, and the magnificent illustrations of this volume, both those from copper-plate at the end of the volume and those in the body of the text as well, form perhaps its most valuable feature, and certainly render more tangible by pleasing presentation to the eye the great gains to the science of antiquity that are chronicled in the volume.

The expeditions were led by E. Petersen, now First Secretary of the Imperial German Archæological Institute at Rome, as archæologist, and G. Niemann of Vienna, as architect. Associated with them from time to time were Von Hartel, professor in the University of Vienna, and Von Sokolowski, professor in the University of Cracow, as archæologists; Moriz Hartel of the *Akademie* of Vienna, and Rausch of Cracow, as architects; Von Malczewski, as artist (painter); Lieut. Hausner, as chartographer; Drs. von Luschan and Heyder, as physicians, and lastly a photographer. From such a corps of experts good work was to be expected, and in general the account given by Petersen and Niemann is exhaustive and satisfactory, although now and then we meet with a confession that this or that detail was overlooked or not investigated on the spot. But circumstances usually excuse these sins of omission. For instance, the walls of Attaleia were not surveyed accurately because of the excitement incident to the Bulgarian troubles of October, 1885, at which time a general call to arms had been sounded, and in consequence the roads were lined with men marching to the sea in order to be transported to the seat of war.

Count Lanckoronski wrote the pleasing preface to the volume, in which the ruins of five cities of Pamphylia are discussed, viz.: of Attaleia, Perge, Sillyon, Aspendos, and Side. In this discussion Petersen and Niemann took part as follows: the archæological account, including history, epigraphy, topography, geography, and the general description of the ruins, comes from the pen of Petersen, while all matters pertaining to pure architecture are treated by Niemann.

The most interesting ruin in Attaleia is a gateway of three arches erected by Hadrian, that inveterate traveller and gate-builder. The theatre, stadion, walls, and principal gateway of Perge all furnish matter worthy of being given to the world. The celebrated and beautiful theatre of Aspendos has long been known, though a detailed account of it is presented to us now for the first time. One of the most interesting monuments discussed is the Nymphæum at Side, a palatial Enneakrounos, whose magnificent proportions and chaste architecture excite our admiration. Similar Nymphæa were found at other cities of Pamphylia, but none so elaborate as that of Side. Owing to the sickness of Niemann, the architect's account of Side is reduced to a minimum, but Petersen's excellent description of the ruins makes us forget his absence.

One hundred and eight inscriptions, mostly new, were found in the five cities of Pamphylia. In republishing inscriptions that are already known in poor copies, Petersen gives the correct part of the old copy in minuscules, but his own corrections in majuscules. Future travellers should adopt the idea, for by it one can see at a glance what improvement has been made in the text, and much time will thus be spared to the reader.

But the results of these expeditions are not confined merely to the cities mentioned above. The map of the country has been a great gainer, for careful route surveys were made as the party journeyed through the land from city to city, and not only this, but geographical excursions were undertaken, especially by Dr. von Luschan, whose attention was extended to ethnographical matters also.

The book appeared simultaneously in German, French, and Polish. In conclusion, we hope that the volume on Pisidia may not be long delayed.

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*William Ewart Gladstone.* By George W. E. Russell. [The Prime Ministers of Queen Victoria.] Harper & Brothers.

IN his preface, Mr. Russell states that as his space is limited, he has "touched lightly on those later events of Mr. Gladstone's career which are within general recollection, and has bestowed more detailed attention on the early stages which are now, to most people, either unknown or forgotten." This arrangement is open to various objections. In the first place, however brief a biography may be, it should cover all the really important events in the life of the subject, and the space given to each event should be measured by its relative importance rather than by an assumed memory or forgetfulness on the part of the reader. Again, the keynote of Mr. Gladstone's character being his extraordinary receptivity, and his willingness to modify opinions as a result of logical conviction, it follows that the later stages of his career are more interesting and

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more important to the world at large than the earlier. We think, therefore, that Mr. Russell would have made a wiser distribution of his space if he had devoted more pages to Mr. Gladstone's Ministry of 1880–85 (to which very scanty reference is made), and fewer to the theological controversies of his early manhood, which possess to-day a purely antiquarian interest. Mr. Russell says that he has aimed at a clear statement of facts, chronologically arranged, and no one will gainsay the correctness of his facts or their proper arrangement. But sins of omission and lack of perspective are serious faults—especially in biographies—and it becomes a question whether the various series now in course of publication do not lose much of their value as biographies by reason of excessive brevity.

Having said this much in condemnation of the *plan* of Mr. Russell's volume, we must add that, while he gives due prominence to certain characteristics of Mr. Gladstone which have largely influenced his action at critical times, he does not seem fully to appreciate their value. In replying to Palmerston's celebrated "Don Pacifico" speech in 1850, Mr. Gladstone had the courage to rebuke the bullying and blustering tone adopted by that popular minister, and spoke of "the vain conception that we, forsooth, have a mission to be the censors of vice and folly, of abuse and imperfection, among the other countries of the world; that we are the universal schoolmasters." Mr. Russell considers that this tendency to ignore the "homely prejudice of patriotism" and this ability to see the faults of his fellow-countrymen as well as the virtues of other nations, have done much to mar Mr. Gladstone's popularity and to limit his range of influence. Now, it is at least doubtful if this be true of the English constituencies. It is certainly the reverse of the truth as regards other nations, for it will be generally admitted that what raises Mr. Gladstone above the level of his countrymen, and justifies Bunsen's remark that he "has heard higher tones than any one else in this land," is the cosmopolitan character of his mind. Hence his vehement advocacy of arbitration as a means of settling international difficulties, in preference to the threats and bluster of the Jingo party. Hence, also, the bitter hatred with which the British Tory regards him and speaks of him—a hatred which constitutes one of his strongest claims on our sympathy and our affection.

Mr. Russell holds that Mr. Gladstone's defeat on the home-rule question in 1886 was due to the fact that the electorate had not sufficient time to consider the question at issue, and certainly the result of recent bye-elections would seem to confirm the correctness of this opinion. In this respect there is a curious analogy between the British voter's fear of home rule in 1886 and the inability of the American voter to grasp Mr. Cleveland's enlightened tariff policy, in 1888. In both cases, the time allowed for education was too short, but subsequent events show that in both cases a clearer understanding is gradually but surely gaining ground.

It would be hardly possible to write an uninteresting life of Mr. Gladstone, but, apart from such inherent interest, the main merit of Mr. Russell's sketch is that it whets the appetite for that something better which is, doubtless, even now in a forward state of preparation.

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*Who Wrote the Bible?* A Book for the People. By Washington Gladden. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

MR. GLADDEN'S book does not make good its title so perfectly as we could wish. It is not "a book for the people." With many admirable qualities, he has not a talent for exposition. Something in the manner of his writing obscures all definite impression. We enjoy, or do not, the argument and the polemic as we go along, but at the end of the chapter or the book the amount of clear instruction we have consciously received is small for the amount of matter we have read. Moreover, the book is vitiated by its apologetic tone. This may ingratiate it with the orthodox reader, and it may be that it is well adapted to the modification of his traditional views, but it can only be repellent to the radical mind, to which a fair judgment of the Bible is quite as important as to the orthodox. It is Mr. Gladden's persuasion that the Bible, as Republicans say of the tariff, should be revised by its friends, and suggestions abound in his chapters that there are those who are not its friends, and there is great show of hustling them about and making them appear ridiculous. But it is quite sufficient to make a critic "anti-Christian," or an "enemy of the Bible," for him to be a little more radical in his conclusions than Mr. Gladden is himself, and it never seems to occur to him that only yesterday those holding his general and particular views were considered anti-Christian and enemies of the Bible by the more orthodox, and, indeed, are so considered still by the majority. There is nothing in the temper of the more radical critics as such that differentiates them from those a little more conservative, that they should be treated with suspicion or contempt. From Hengstenberg to Delitzsch is much further than from Delitzsch to Baur or Toy.

Mr. Gladden's book reflects the uncertainties that attach to many questions of Biblical criticism. When in doubt, he generally plays the traditional opinion, as in placing Joel chronologically first among the prophets, though Prof. Toy would place him last, with certain fragments of Zechariah. The composite character of the Pentateuch is insisted on, but any reader who is acquainted with the argument of Kuenen and Reuss and Wellhausen and Smith for the late origin of the priestly legislation will seriously object to their being set aside so cavalierly as they are by Mr. Gladden. They will even wonder if he has ever read them at first hand. The chapter on the prophets, which should have been one of the most valuable and suggestive, is one of the least important, much of the energy being wasted on Prof. Huxley that should have served a higher end. The Book of Esther is pounced upon with savage animosity; but suppose it came up from the deep heart of such an experience as that which the Jews are undergoing at the present time in Russia: then might not its truculence be regarded with more sympathy than blame? And this would seem to be more likely than that it was merely a literary brochure to excuse the feast of Purim. Such an important matter as that of the Deutero-Isaiah is passed over with no treatment proportionate to that given to Daniel and other more indifferent matters. The treatment of the New Testament is marked by the same difference from the treatment of the Old as we find almost universally in the criticism of the New Orthodoxy. It is much less courageous, much more apologetic. "The reason is, of course, obvious," says Principal Gore in 'Lux Mundi,' "why what can be admitted in the Old Testament could not without results disastrous to the Christian creed be admitted in the New." Though Mr. Gladden does not announce this principle, its unconscious operation is central to his treatment of the New Testament books, his easy satisfaction with traditional opinions, and his determination to surrender nothing to the radical critics except what is, like the Pauline authorship of Hebrews, incapable of any plausible defence. His average results are by so much less radical than those of Prof. Briggs as he is less a scholar and more a homilist, but they are sufficiently near to them to indicate the wide extent of that disintegration to which, for better or worse, the traditional ideas of the Bible are subject at the present time.

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*John Wesley.* By J. H. Overton, M.A. London: Methuen & Co. 1891.

THE latest biographer of Wesley was born at Epworth, Wesley's birthplace, and is now rector of the parish over which Wesley's father ruled and in which Wesley for a time assisted him; he is also living in the rectory in which Wesley lived after the burning of the old rectory in 1709—an event which made such a deep impression on Wesley's mind that, writing his own epitaph, he described himself as "a brand plucked out of the burning." Mr. Overton can further boast himself a member of Wesley's University and a scholar on the same foundation. So much in common with Wesley has no doubt excited his interest in him, but it is no such qualification for his present task as the work that he had previously done, first, as a joint worker on Abbey and Overton's 'English Church in the Eighteenth Century,' and, second, as the author of 'The Evangelical Revival of the Eighteenth Century.' The reader of his last production would do well to read his 'Evangelical Revival' in connection with it. Wesley cannot be seen aright in any isolated view. Mr. Overton's biography has apparently obeyed some stern restriction as to its extent. He has made good use of the space at his command, but there are serious omissions. Wesley's relation to the Moravians is dismissed in the most summary manner, though Wesley derived from it the spiritual impulse of his wonderful career. Wesley's relations to Whitefield, which were of capital importance, are got over in a single page and a few incidental phrases. But the most conspicuous defect of Mr. Overton's book is not so much an omission as an excess in one particular, Wesley's relation to the English Church. What he has written is less a biography than an apology for Wesley's life, an argument to prove that he was a good Churchman from first to last, and never meant to separate himself or his people from his spiritual mother. He recurs to this with damnable iteration, and the reader must be a good Churchman who will not resent such persistent harping on a single string. Whatever the sentiments of the founder, English Methodism of the present day is so inimical to the Church that, at the centenary observance of Wesley's death, March 2, hostility to the Church was the one shrill note sounding above all others. Mr. Overton's book may have contributed a little to the manifest hostility to all praise of Wesley's churchmanship, as it is, of course, a criticism of the Methodist schism.

It is plain sailing for our author a good deal of his way. The beginnings of Methodism at Oxford in 1729 had a very singular resemblance to those of the Oxford movement just a century later, notwithstanding Newman's hatred almost or quite as much as of liberalism of that type of churchmanship which Methodism had created. In Georgia it was as a rigid sacramentarian that Wesley failed; for that his failure was most lamentable, Mr. Overton makes plain enough in spite of his de-

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nial, and though he obscures the most painful aspects of the situation. So, after his return to England, his first collision with his bishop was a sacramental one, and he was the High Churchman stickling for the rebaptism of dissenters. But all of these things are burned up like wisps of straw in the flame of Wesley's "American Ordinations," in the last years of his life. Mr. Overton struggles manfully with these, but all in vain. Where he is weak as water is in his failure to perceive that Wesley was still less willing to have his societies absorbed in the Church than to have them separated from it, and that their absorption in it was as impossible as the absorption of the New England abolitionists by the New England churches. But if they were not to be absorbed, separation was inevitable. They could not go on for ever standing on one leg, neither this, that, nor the other.

Mr. Overton's chapters on "Georgia" and "The Moravian Influence" are miserably inadequate. That on "Wesley's Teaching" argues his soundness in the Anglican faith, and makes too little account of his emphasis of some things to the neglect of others as a constant means of differentiation. The chapter on his itineracy is but a meagre compend of that wondrous Odyssey, with its 225,000 miles of travel and its 40,000 sermons preached, for the most part in the open air, the man rising habitually at four in the morning and preaching at five. The chapter "Wesley as an Organizer" repeats the well-known facts which show that he originated next to nothing in the way of organization, but knew a good thing when he found it, and was wise to follow the leadings of necessity. Far too much is made of the analogues of his Societies in the Primitive Church. There are brief chapters on internal divisions, friends and opponents, and literary work, the last a testimony almost as remarkable as his itineracy to marvellous diligence. There is a minimum of emphasis on clerical opposition, agreeably to the purpose of the book. That Butler of the 'Analogy,' Bishop of Bristol, was one of Wesley's firmest opponents, suggests that the Church was not entirely in the wrong.

The chapter on his personal traits is the most painful in the book, it is so evident that the prophet spoiled the man. Humanity was Wesley's crowning lack. It declared itself in the perfect silliness of his relations with women at all times, in his cruel ignorance of children, and in his passionate weakness for those "physical manifestations," of which his brother was suspicious from the first. At the school he founded he would have children rise at four and engage an hour in private devotion, and they were to be allowed no play. An Irish Wesley wished to adopt Charles, but, failing of this, took another youth from whom came Arthur Wellesley (another form of Wesley), Duke of Wellington. The conjunction is mainly interesting as suggesting that John Wesley, for all his splendid force and high devotion, was not, like the great Duke, "rich in saving common sense." He had the temper of Calvin, though he rejected his theology. He had no grain of Luther's kindly humor, and as little of his broad humanity and loving heart.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bauman, Oscar. Usambara und seine Nachbargebiete. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer.
Chase, Frederick. History of Dartmouth College. Vol. I. Cambridge: John Wilson & Son.
Cotes, V. C. Two Girls on a Barge. D. Appleton & Co.
Cowan, Rev. J. F. The Jo-Boat Boys. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Doctor Lamar. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Douglass, Amanda M. Osborne of Arrochar. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Dowie, Miss M. M. A Girl in the Karpathians. Cassell Publishing Co. $1.50.
Easby-Smith, J. S. The Songs of Sappho. Washington: Stormont & Jackson. $1.
Falconer, L. The Hôtel d'Angleterre, and Other Stories. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Ford, Worthington C. The Writings of George Washington. Vol. XI. 1785—1790. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Franzos, Karl E. Judith Trachtenberg. Harper & Bros. 40 cents.
Frederic, Harold. The Young Emperor. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
George, A. J. Burke's American Orations. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 50 cents.
Gide, Prof. Charles. Principles of Political Economy. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $2.
Heyne, Prof. Moriz. Deutsches Wörterbuch. Dritter Halbband. H—Licht. Leipzig: S. Hirzel; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Holden, H. A. The Seventh Book of the History of Thucydides. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Hosmer, Prof. J. K. A Short History of German Literature. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
Kenyon, F. G. Classical Texts from Papyri in the British Museum, including the newly discovered Poems of Herodas. London: British Museum.
Lamartine, Alphonse. Le Tailleur de Pierres de Saint-Point. Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof.
Lee, Florence P. Sunshine in Life. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Lee, Rev. G. S. About an Old New England Church. Boston: Congregational Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Lewis, Monk. Rosario, or the Female Monk. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Lindley, Percy. Tourist-Guide to the Continent. London: Great Eastern Railway Company.
Macqueary, Rev. Howard. Topics of the Times. John W. Lovell Co. $1.
Merrill's Word and Sentence Book. New York: Charles E. Merrill & Co.
Miller, Mrs. Olive Thorne. The Woman's Club. John W. Lovell Co. $1.
Morley, Prof. H. English Writers. Vol. 7. Cassell Publishing Co. $1.50.
Morris, Prof. E. D. A Friendly Talk about Revision. Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. 30 cents.
Muller, Donizetti. The Origin of Will o' the Wisp. The Republic Press. $1.50.
Nichols, Ida P. and De Morgan, Mary. Princess Girlikin, and Other Fairy Tales. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Reinach, S. Chroniques d'Orient. Paris: Firmin-Didot & Cie.
Richardson, Dr. B. W. Thomas Sopwith. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Warner, C. D. As We Were Saying. Harper & Bros.
Weismann, Prof. August. Essays upon Heredity. 2d ed. Vol. 1. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

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